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ELSH PENNY.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FOR YOUNG STUDENTS

From the Earliest Times to the Present

WITH
MAIN POINTS FOR CONSIDERATION.

BY
REV. ARTHUR DEACON, SMITH, M.A.,
FATHER OF FREDERICK.



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P R E F A C E.

THIS little work is intended to facilitate and encourage, not to supersede, the deeper study of English History.

The aim of the author has been to use such condensation as should comprise all facts of importance, without reducing the style of the book to a hard and lifeless chronicle.

The main points for consideration have been placed at the end of each period, so as to serve the double purpose of reference and self-examination, under a less formal shape than question and answer.

Thus a distinct series of points is furnished, and indeed suggested, for specific and larger study, or more accurate and detailed reading; as, for instance, a piece of antiquity, or a charter, or a personal history, or the development of some law or feature of the Constitution.

But while it is impossible that a work of the present compass could do more than present the subject in outline, with suggestions of criticism on doubtful or debated points, the young student who will fairly master its contents will be possessed of no mean knowledge of his country's History.

ERRATA.

<i>Page</i>	14	<i>for</i>	Rutupiæ	<i>read</i>	Rutupiæ.
"	25	"	This king	"	Ethelbert.
"	28	"	Liofa	"	Leofu.
"	56	"	Her	"	Hia.
"	63	"	church	"	castle.
"	81	"	William II.	"	William I.
"	81	"	grandsons	"	grandson.
"	102	"	Edward	"	Edmund.
"	105	"	Lorrain	"	Lorraine.
"	157	"	Henry II.	"	Henry III.
"	239	"	seventeen	"	several.
"	246	"	daughter	"	granddaughter.
"	280	"	1804	"	1805.

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

BRITISH PERIOD.

PRIOR TO THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR, B.C. 55.

THE history of every people is affected by the nature of the country which they inhabit. On this account it is that the geographical position and physical features of our own country are worthy of some little notice, before we enter upon the great story which we have to tell about it.

Great Britain is an island, which is composed of England and Scotland, and has the island of Ireland adjacent to it on the western side ; besides several smaller islands which have always in history accompanied its fortunes. Such are the Isle of Wight in the British Channel ; the Channel Islands—Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark ; the Isle of Man ; and some of less note, as the Orkneys, the Scilly Islands, and others.

But that which we are going to relate is properly called the “History of England,” because, as will be seen, for many generations after the dawn of authentic history, as it relates to our own country, Scotland and Ireland were independent of England.

This island, then, of Great Britain is situated west of the mainland of Europe, and is parted from France, or, as it was anciently called, Gaul, by a channel which, in its narrowest part, between the modern towns of Dover and Calais, is about twenty miles in breadth. It lies between the 50th and 58th parallels of north latitude, and between the 2nd of east, and the 6th degree of west, longitude. Its greatest length from north to south is about 700, and its

average breadth 300 miles. Being surrounded by the ocean, the climate, like that of islands generally, is humid and equable, and does not suffer from those extremes of heat and cold which affect the portions of the mainland which lie in the same latitude; while to its position in the temperate zone is owing, in a large measure, the energetic character of its inhabitants.

England is flat and undulating on the east side, towards which, and the south, the principal rivers flow, while none of any importance flow in a westerly direction. It rises towards the west into the hills of Wales, which nowhere exceed 2000 feet in altitude—the height of Snowdon, the highest peak of the Welsh mountains. The absence of high mountains, covered with perpetual snow, or containing the upper strata of the atmosphere, is another cause of the comparative mildness of England's climate. The country is varied in the character of its soil—in parts opening into chalky downs, which afford the best pasture for sheep, in others overgrown with dense forests of fine timber, in others presenting tracts of fresh or salt marshes; while stone for building purposes, coal for fuel, and useful minerals lie beneath the surface of the soil.

There is perhaps no country in Europe in which so many hours are available for active life through the day and night as England.

But it will require some exercise of the imagination to picture the state of the country in the condition in which it first met the eyes of civilized Europeans.

We must remove all traces of modern art and invention; we must, in imagination, extinguish all the gas-lights, and dig up the railways, even the macadamized roads, unstring the electric telegraphs; we must dismantle the large towns and ancient churches, break down the bridges over the rivers, and picture it to ourselves as only here and there reclaimed by man from the land and the marsh—a wild land, the home of a wild people, over which the deer, the bear, the wolf, the fox, the wild bull with his herd, roamed at large. The otter fished in the rivers, and the beaver made his "home with-bands," and birds of prey, which have long since be-

come extinct, or are now rarely seen, swooped down upon their quarries.

And the men of the land themselves were but savages, living by the chase, or keeping herds of sheep and swine, which they fed on the downs and marshes, and in the hearts of the forests; shooting at game with arrows of which the heads were pieces of splintered flint; living in wattled huts, the trunks of forest trees furnishing wooden fortifications and canoes; lying on wooden benches, drinking from wooden bowls, and feeding from wooden platters; clad, like Robinson Crusoe, in the winter time with the skins of slain beasts, and in the summer appearing in their favourite costume of blue dye—the juice of the woad plant, with yellow hair streaming in the wind, and beards shaven except on the upper lip; sleeping on heather or dry grass or the skins of animals; spearing the fish of their rivers with flint-headed harpoons—on the beautiful winding Wye, for instance, at Tintern, or at Oxford, or at Stratford-upon-Avon, out of coracles, or boats of basket-work covered with leather. Yet the inhabitants of the southernmost portion of England must have been more civilized than those of the interior and the north, from their constant intercourse with strangers.

Here let us pause a moment to reflect on the apparent disproportion between the territory of Great Britain and the extent of that dominion which she has acquired; girdling the earth with her settlements, so that, as has been observed, the roll of the British drum through her garrisons hardly ceases as it tells the hours in every climate of the world. Yet Rome, in like manner, from a city of the Tiber, grew up to be a power whose legions carried her standard over the whole earth, as it was known to the ancients of her time. In one respect, however, the case of England is altogether unlike that of Rome. For Rome recruited her armies and her citizens out of the countries which she conquered, whereas England's greatest conquests have been effected by her own sons, whose native energy and perseverance have overcome all obstacles, and planted an empire unparalleled in history for its power, wealth, and civilization.

Now, what evidence have we that the people in some respects were redeemed from the extreme of barbarism at the time when the country first became, through the Romans, fully known to the rest of the world?

One such indication is the use of coinage, which implies not only some knowledge of working the metals which they possessed in the tin, lead, and copper mines of Devonshire and Cornwall, but also a sufficiently extensive communication among the inhabitants to make a system of coinage useful.

Of British coins, specimens have been found wearing a pre-Roman character, though it is remarkable that Cæsar says they used rings for money, and had no coinage.

Again, we are at the present day struck with wonder when we visit the specimens of British architecture which still survive—an architecture rude indeed, but of such a massive and enduring sort as still presents a problem of mystery and marvel to the learned as they visit or speculate upon the ruins of Stonehenge.

Again, we read in the old chroniclers of ornaments of gold worn by the natives upon their persons, as brooches, necklaces, and bracelets, which they must have procured or learnt to manufacture from intercourse with strangers.

Again, the use of woollen fabrics prevailed among the tribes of the south coast, where it is not improbable that factories or settlements of foreign traders were established; while the Druids are represented as dressed in robes of white linen, and the Arch-Druid as on solemn occasions cutting the mistletoe with a golden sickle, especially on the 6th day of the Moon nearest to the 10th of March, on which their year began.

Again, unlike tribes sunk in extreme barbarism, which are divided into petty communities not understanding the language of one another, the ancient Britons possessed an organized military system, so that, whatever may have been their internal dissensions, they could lay these aside for the purpose of meeting a common enemy.

Again, they lived under one religion, which, with all its corruptions and abominations, must have tended in some measure to keep their savage minds in control. In short,

the Druids were in all probability the governors of the country, exercising supreme civil and criminal jurisdiction, whose authority the chiefs and warriors recognised in disputes among the tribes, as they were also the teachers and priests of the people.

And, again, another indication of the advance made upon extreme barbarism we derive from the actual testimony of Julius Cæsar himself, which shall presently be referred to.

Meanwhile let us say a little about the singular religion of Druidism, so far as we gather its nature from Cæsar's account and those of the early chroniclers of our own country.

Their religion extended through the length and breadth of the land. Its centre or metropolis was in the island then called Mona, and afterwards Anglesey; and they themselves were divided into three classes—the first, the bards, were the historians and poets; the second, the vates, the prophets or religious poets; and the third, styled emphatically Druids, were the priests of religion. The features of this religion deserve notice. In the first place it does not appear to have been idolatrous in the common sense of a multiplication of idols for worship carved into human form out of wood or stone. Like the religion of the American Indians, its external symbolism seems to have consisted in a veneration for rude shapes of massive size, and certain forms of vegetative nature, as the oak and the mistletoe. The sort of sanctity which they attributed to these, or the grounds of their veneration, could be at the best no more than conjecture. But the power of the Druids resided in the doctrines which they taught of a future state, and of the transmigration of souls. They had, no doubt, that hold over the consciences of their people which shows itself in similar ways in all cases of an over-dominant priesthood. That they believed in the efficacy of human sacrifices, and practised them, we are not at liberty to doubt. To appease the anger of offended heaven the victim was burnt upon the stone altar under the spreading branches of the oak, or crowded with others in a huge wicker image, made into something resembling the human

form, till the smoke of this hecatomb of living creatures ascended to the sky. Now, who were these ancient Britons? From what stock or quarter of the world did they find their way?

All science confirms the declaration of Scripture that the cradle of mankind was in the East.

From this quarter migrated the great Caucasian or Indo-European family, a section of which—the Celtic—had occupied our land at the dawn of history.

This Celtic family, which on its way westward had first occupied Gaul, was in Britain distinguishable into two branches, the Gaelic, which occupied Scotland and Ireland, and the Cymric, which settled in England and Wales.

But the authentic narrative of England or Great Britain begins with Julius Cæsar, who invaded it in the year B.C. 55. All that relates to it prior to this period is of comparatively obscure and doubtful authority.

In the reign of Henry V. an intelligent chronicler appeared in the person of Dr. John Capgrave, a learned priest, who wrote a "Chronicle of England," which in some respects was superior to any that had preceded it. In this, borrowing from Geoffrey of Monmouth, who wrote in the reign of Stephen, and Nennius, in the time of Alfred, he says, that soon after the Trojan war, in the year 1116, being the year of the death of the Jewish High Priest Eli, Brutus, a near descendant of Æneas, came into this country with a colony of Trojans, and called the land after his own name Britain, dividing it into three portions, which he distributed among his three sons, Loegrius, Albanactus, and Camber—that the eldest received that portion of the country which lay south of the Humber, the second all that lay north of the Humber, and the third Wales, which from him derived the name of Cambria.

In reading such stories as this, we cannot but feel that we are treading on mythical, not historical ground. Yet, such myths would not exist without some foundation, however remote. The legend of Brutus and his Trojans may at least be taken to point to an early communication between this country and the Levant, and this is confirmed by many an independent piece of evidence.

The writers of the early English history were monastic chroniclers, either personally monks, or deriving their information from documents laid up in the monasteries. With such, the early legends or traditions of their country would be apt to be clothed in a foreign garb of classic lore, through a sort of learned ignorance; yet, there is every reason to believe, that, from the earliest times of recorded history, intercourse existed between Great Britain and the smaller isles of the British Channel on the one side, and the Asiatic coasts of the Mediterranean on the other. In this modified sense we may accept the legend of Brutus and his Trojans, and may consider it to be confirmed by the following considerations:—

The prophet Ezekiel notices a Tyrian trade in tin, supposed to have been with Britain (Ezekiel xxvii. 12): “*Tarshish was thy merchant, by reason of the multitude of all kinds of riches, with silver, iron, tin, and lead, they traded in thy fairs.*” Herodotus speaks of an established trade of the Cassiterides or Tin Islands, believed to be some islands of the British Channel. Aristotle speaks of the Britannic Isles as known to his countrymen under the names of Albion and Ierne, which is Ireland. Posidonius, engineer to Alexander the Great, heard of tin brought from the Britannic Isles to Massilia, or Marseilles, which is known to have been a colony of Phœcean Greeks. Polybius professed himself to be well acquainted with, and much interested in the British metallurgy. Diodorus Siculus speaks of the inhabitants as partially civilized by their intercourse with strangers. Strabo mentions the Tin Islands as having also a trade in lead and skins. Pliny writes of them and their trade. Arrian, in his *Periplus, or “Circumnavigation,”* mentioned tin as brought from the west, and Ptolemy thought of their inhabitants as free, warlike, and ingenious. Such scanty and scattered notices, which constitute the only materials drawn from authentic sources for the history of England prior to Cæsar, point, nevertheless, in the same direction as his own testimony to the state of the Island when he visited it. He speaks of a numerous population, with tribes or centres of inhabitants, a cultivation of the soil for corn, temples for religion, schools for the study of

astronomy, an intercourse with Gaul and the Druids of that country, a military organization, and a system of warfare, involving the use of war-chariots, which presented a formidable resistance to the mail-clad legions of Rome.

A most interesting question is that which relates to the time when Christianity was introduced into Britain. According to one account, a British king, Lucius, reigned in the year A.D. 180, and was, under Pope Eleutherius, converted to the true faith. Under Diocletian is placed the martyrdom of St. Alban, the first British martyr, at Verulam, from him called St. Albans, and of Aaron and Julius, two citizens of Caerleon, an obsolete town of South Wales. Such traditions might be regarded as purely legendary, were it not for the fact of the existence of a British Church, as attested by authentic history. At the first Council of Arles, in France, in 314, three British Bishops appeared—Eborius, of York, Restitutus, of London, and Adelfius, whose see is unknown. The Bible was translated into the British tongue, and Pelagius, the opponent of Augustine, is said to have been a Briton, whose native name of Morgan, meaning the froth of the sea, was converted into its Latin equivalent, Pelagius. His disciple Celestius was an Irishman. Pope Celestine sent over some Gallic Bishops to confute the followers of Pelagius, who denied the doctrine of original sin; and in 446 a general expulsion of them, as teachers, took place under the authority of the Pope. Other traditions bring St. Paul himself into Britain as its first missionary, and assert that cases of British conversion to Christianity are to be found in Pomponia, the wife of Plautius, the General and Pro-Consul of Claudius, and Claudia, the wife of the Roman Senator Pudens, who, with her husband, is mentioned in the Second of St. Paul's Epistles to Timothy.

MAIN POINTS.

Connexion of history and geography. Geography and climate of England. Aboriginal condition. Partial civilization. Druids. Two main races. Monastic chroniclers. Legend of Brutus, grandson of *Aeneas*. Ancient notices of Britain. King Lucius. St. Alban the Martyr. Council of Arles. Early British converts to Christianity.

CHAPTER II.

ROMAN PERIOD.

FROM THE INVASION OF JULIUS CÆSAR, B.C. 55, TO THE
DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS, A.D. 410.

SUCH was the condition of Britain, as we glean by putting together the notices of classic and English writers, or chroniclers, when the inhabitants fell under an influence, the importance of which it would be impossible to over-estimate.

In the year B.C. 55, Julius Cæsar, who had been fighting in Gaul, passed over from the Gallic coast to that of Britain.

The exact spots of embarkation and landing cannot now be ascertained, though they have given rise to much clever and interesting conjecture. It has been said, for instance, that the name of Romney still bears traces of the Roman invasion, and that at some point near Dungeness, on Romney, or Romanel Marsh, the feet of the Roman legions first touched the British land.

The approach of the Roman galleys had been espied from the white cliffs of Albion, as they sped their way across the narrow belt of sea which separates the island from the continent; and the natives met in dense numbers on the coast to dispute the landing of the armed strangers. It was not at first that the legions made up their minds to charge from the vessels, whose prows they had stranded upon the beach, after their custom. But, of the two legions which Cæsar had brought with him, one was his favourite tenth. The standard-bearer raised aloft the eagle of Rome, and rallied the legions. Soon both had waded into the water, and had come to a hand-to-hand fight with the brave barbarians. But naked valour was of little avail against the armed discipline of those soldiers who had already carried their general victorious through Gaul, and the Romans established and entrenched themselves in the country.

Cæsar now remained only three weeks in Britain. Though

he fought, and was victorious in several engagements, he could gain no solid advantage from victory over the brave natives, who possessed nothing that could enrich his army with plunder. His fleet also was shattered by a severe storm on that inhospitable coast. So he stipulated that the Britons should send hostages to Gaul, and returned with his army to the continent.

The invader once out of sight, the Britons thought no more of keeping their stipulations. To punish their neglect, the Roman conqueror returned the following year. The story of the landing was almost repeated a second time, and Cæsar reached the town of Verulam, or St. Albans, in Hertfordshire, the fortress of Caswallon, or, as his name was Latinized, Cassibelaunus, and capital of the tribe of the Trinobantes, whom he deposed, transferring his chieftainship to his own ally, Mandubratius. But the occupation of the country harassed the soldiers without any recompense for their labours and perils, and Cæsar withdrew his forces, never himself to return to British shores.

It is natural to ask here what was the motive of this Roman invasion? The search for tin, or pearls, or any such commodity as Cæsar may have heard spoken about by the Gallic merchants whom he had consulted respecting the country previously to his visit, could hardly have been uppermost in the minds of himself and his legions. It was, no doubt, that same thirst for conquest and military adventure which had brought them already so far, and which seems to be covertly admitted in Cæsar's declaration, that he desired to retaliate on the Britons for having on a former occasion succoured their neighbours the Gauls against himself. In the case of every nation powerful, and essentially military, as Rome was, the supply of battle, plunder, conquest, and adventure is a necessity in the condition of any leader who would acquire or retain the control and support of the army. We need not seek deeper for reasons—pretexts no doubt would be forthcoming, but the true cause lay in the national spirit of the invaders.

On his second visit Cæsar had brought with him, instead of two legions as at first, an army of 20,000 men. He vanquished the combined tribes of Britain under

Caswallon or Cassivelaunus ; the combination indicating, as we have hinted, a state far in advance of the lowest barbarism. The legions, notwithstanding their numbers, had learnt to respect the bravery of the barbarians, they had felt the shock of the British war-chariots bearing scythes upon their axle-trees, four thousand of which were kept in reserve by the native commander-in-chief, whose metal wings seemed to bear them with devastating flight into the Roman ranks, while their charioteers would engage, now from their places, now nimbly running and balancing themselves upon the poles, and now sword in hand upon the ground, returning with a bound to their cars and scouring the plains in retreat, ready to sweep down again upon the enemy's ranks from some new quarter of attack. Such stories seem to tell the twofold tale of continual internal warfare combined with a feeling of clanship strong enough to bind the people together against a foreign invader. As yet the Britons were unconquered. Cæsar in his two invasions had not, as Tacitus says, "conquered Britain ; he had but shown it to the Romans."

For nearly a hundred years the Britons remained unmolested. The foolish freaks of Caligula, who, with his warriors gathered shells from the beach and retired as if disappointed with the story of the fabled gems and pearls of the British seas, can hardly be regarded as an interruption of the peace which the islanders enjoyed immediately upon the retirement of the first Cæsar. Of the two predecessors of Claudius, Augustus deemed it impolitic to extend any farther the limits of the Roman Empire, and Tiberius made this policy of Augustus an excuse for his own inactivity, but Claudius himself determined on invading Britain in earnest. Yet between the departure of Julius and their invasion under Claudius, the Britons, though left to themselves, advanced in civilization. The coins of Cynobelus, a successor of Cassivelaunus, the Cymbeline of Shakspeare, are in the Roman style of device and lettering ; while commercial intercourse, though on an independent footing, was kept up with Rome through Gaul.

It was in the year A.D. 43 that Claudius, instigated, according to one account, by a British exile named Beric, undertook the invasion of Britain. Four legions, with Gallic auxiliaries, under the Generals Aulus Plautius and Vespasian, landed, and a triumph was awarded at Rome for a victory under Osidius Geta.

Vespasian fought thirty battles and occupied the Isle of Wight; his son Titus also, the illustrious captor of Jerusalem, and afterwards Emperor, here reaped his early laurels. For nine years war was carried on, till in A.D. 51, the Britons were signally defeated under their leader Caradoc, or as the Romans called him, Caractacus; who was sent a captive by the Roman General Ostorius Scapula to Rome. As the noble Briton was led in triumph through the streets of the Eternal City, he could not repress an exclamation of surprise that his British hut should have been grudged him by a people possessed of such magnificence. It is gratifying to read further, that his speech and bearing procured him his release from the magnanimity of the Emperor.

In the year A.D. 61 Suetonius Paulinus attacked the Isle of Mona, or, as it was afterwards called, Anglesey, and subverted the Druidical power. This was in the reign of Nero. It was a matter requiring as much courage as a formidable battle to face these bold priests and priestesses, who invoked every curse upon the impious soldiers who had dared to invade the sacred precincts of the immemorial religion of Britain. But the soldiers had dealt with similar terrors, and havoc and slaughter immolated those whose fires and knives had made many women childless.

Yet the occupation of the Roman general in the north-west was a signal to the British tribes to rise in the east.

Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni and widow of Prasatagus, had been scourged, while her daughter had been dishonoured by the Roman Tribunes. She took up arms and reduced to ashes the Roman colony of Londinium or London. She massacred every Roman she could find. Suetonius returned to give her battle. She was defeated in an engagement which was not fought out till 80,000

Britons had perished. She herself drinking poison, rather than fall into the hands of her victor or outlive her army's defeat.

Cerealis and Frontinus received appointments as generals in Britain from Vespasian, but it was by Julius Agricola, who governed for seven years in Britain (78-85), his command being nearly contemporary with the Emperors Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, that the Roman power was first consolidated in this island. In his time those regular and direct lines of communication across the country, which are still called streets, from the Roman stratum, intersected the island. Elegant villas were erected, stone forts or castles were built, and the upper classes and chiefs of the Britons began to adopt the Roman dress, language, and manners, with the sanction and encouragement of Agricola himself. With that instinct which led the Romans to regard themselves as protectors of the countries which they subjugated—a policy of which Agricola was admirably qualified to be the exponent—they began now to barricade the land against the invasions of the Northern tribes of Scotland. He penetrated into Scotland or Caledonia, and gained a victory over Galgacus at the foot of the Grampians. He also sent his fleet on a survey of the coast of Britain, starting from, and returning to the Portus Trutulensis or Harbour of Sandwich.

The province of Britain was now reduced, and the only disturbance of their occupation of the country, which the Romans had reason to apprehend, was from the Picts and Scots, who inhabited the northernmost portions of the island. To obviate these, and better to secure the frontiers of the empire, Hadrian, who visited the island, built a rampart of earth from the mouth of the Tyne to Solway Frith. In the time of Antoninus Pius another was found necessary and erected between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, along the line of fortresses which Agricola had established. But these did not prove strong enough to keep back the Caledonians, and the Proprætor Virius Lupus was compelled to entreat the presence of the Emperor himself.

Severus, now advanced in age and suffering severely

from gout, reached the spot and inspected Hadrian's fortifications, which he repaired and faced with stone-work. He made a treaty with the Northern natives, who agreed to cede a portion of their territory, and then retired to York, where he died A.D. 211. His son Caracalla, who, with his brother Geta, had accompanied his father to Britain, eager to grasp the imperial sceptre, made a hasty treaty with the natives, and departed with all speed for Rome.

The tribes of Britain best known to the Romans were six: the Cantii of Kent, the Trinobantes of Middlesex and Essex, whose capital was apparently Londinium or London, though their stronghold under Cassivelaunus had been Verulam; the Cenimagni or Iceni of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire; the Segontiaci of Hampshire and Berkshire; and the Ancalites and Bibroci of part of Berkshire and Wiltshire.

The country was in course of time traversed by four great military roads. Watling-street, which started from Rutupæ or Richborough on the Kentish coast, passed through London, and terminated at Caernarvon. Ikenild or Rikenild-street, beginning at Tynemouth in Northumberland, bore in a south-westerly direction through York, Derby, and Birmingham to St. David's in South Wales. St. David's, which was the terminus of Ikenild-street, was the starting point for Irmin or Hermin-street, which extended from that place to Southampton; and the fourth, the Foss-way extended across the midland from Cornwall to Lincoln.

The Government of Britain by the Romans underwent alteration in the progress of time. Down to the year 197 A.D. it formed one province and was governed by a consular legate, and a procurator. Then it was divided into two provinces, called Britannia Prima, south of the Thames and Severn; westward of this line extended Britannia Secunda, including Wales. Flavia Cæsariensis was the midland portion from the Thames to the Humber. Maxima Cæsariensis comprised the whole subjugated country north of the Humber until the year A.D. 369, when Valentia was added to the province which lay be-

tween the walls of Severus and Antoninus, the outlying portion north of the latter, receiving the specific name of Vespasiana. The chief town was York, the residence of the *Vicarius Brittanniae*.

And now, that is, in the third century of the Christian era, a new influence was felt in Britain. This was that of the Saxon pirates, whose attacks upon the eastern coast of Britain became so frequent and formidable that, under the Emperors Diocletian and Maximian, an officer was appointed under the title of "Count of the Saxon Shore." The first person so appointed was Carausius, who, making the most of his position, allied himself with the Saxons, and compelled the Roman Emperor Maximian to acknowledge him as his associate in the empire. He was assassinated by his own officer Allectus, who usurped the imperial title, till he was defeated by the army sent against him by Constantius.

The last Roman emperor that resided in Britain was Constantius Chlorus, whose wife, Helena, was a British princess. He died at York in 306, where his son Constantine, afterwards surnamed the Great, was born, and where he assumed the title of Cæsar.

In the year 368 and under the reign of Valentinian, the Scots and Picts passed the Northern ramparts and penetrated as far as London. Theodosius, the father of the Roman Emperor of that name, repulsed them, and recovering the district between the walls of Severus and Antoninus, called it Valentia, after the Emperor Valentinian.

But the Romans were now more and more pressed at home by these Northern tribes, who, in the end subverted the empire, and Gaul was already in the hands of the Alani, Suevi, and Vandals. So it was, that in the time of Honorius, they were compelled to withdraw the legions serving in Britain for the exigencies of home service. Once more the Romans under Gallio visited England, at the earnest request of the harassed people, but, having taught and exhorted them to defend themselves, they took their final departure.

Another incident occurred to weaken the British power.

It deserves notice as being connected with the foundation of the Gallic Province of Brittany, formerly called Armorica. About the year 388, Maximus, a Roman officer, having married a British princess, and commanding the Roman Legions in Britain, aspired to the imperial dignity. He proclaimed himself Emperor in Britain. Not content with this, he took an army of Britons into Gaul, and meeting the Roman Emperor Gratian near Lyons, defeated and slew him. He endeavoured to push on his fortunes into Italy, but Theodosius, whom Gratian had associated with himself in the empire, confronted and killed him. His followers endeavoured to find their way back to Britain; but failing in this, settled under the protection of the Belgic Gauls in the north of Gaul, and gave their name to what is now the Province of Brittany.

The incursions of the northerners were now renewed. Aided by the Gallic Bishop St. Germain of Auxerre, the Britons gained a victory over them in 429, which from the war-cry of Alleluia, was called the victory of the Alleluia. But no lasting results accrued. Again they appealed to Rome. "The groans of the Britons to *Ætius the Patrician*" was their touching address, but Attila, the Hun, was at the gates of Rome and left no time for thinking of the poor distant Britons. And so the fatal step was taken, by the advice especially of Vortigern, King of the Cantii or Kent,—fatal yet inevitable. The Britons invoked the help of the Saxons against the Scots and Picts, A.D. 450.

MAIN POINTS.

Name of Romney Marsh. Landings of Cæsar. Cassivelaunus. His capital and tribe. Motive of the Roman invasion. Augustus, Tiberius, and Caligula in relation to Britain. Claudius. British coins and civilization by the Romans. Plautius and Vespasian. Titus. Caractacus sent to Rome by Scapula. Suetonius Paulinus and the Druids of Anglesey. The victory over Boadicea. Government of Agricola. Walls of Hadrian and Antoninus. Severus. Roman roads and British provinces. Threatenings of Saxon invasions. "Count of the Saxon shore." British Empress Helena. Origin of name of Brittany. Withdrawal of Roman troops from Britain. Alleluia victory.

CHAPTER III.

ANGLO-SAXON PERIOD.

HEPTARCHY. A.D. 455—A.D. 827.

It would seem that what the Britons under the Roman influence had gained in civilization they lost in independence of spirit. There can be no doubt that the people of the country were raised by the occupation of it by their Roman conquerors to a high condition of civilization. The improvement of their language by the introduction of the Latin, the extension of agriculture and of commerce with the continent, the adoption of Roman manners and costume, the erection of villas, the clearing of forest lands, and the extermination of wild animals, the increased facility of communication with different parts of the island effected by the four great highways or streets, which the Roman soldiers, who always carried tools as well as weapons, had cut out of the wild soil—these must have wrought a marvellous change in the face of the country and the state of its inhabitants during the period of four centuries over which the Roman occupation extended. But they had leant upon a foreign support until they had forgotten how to defend themselves. Their Roman masters had built northern ramparts, which the degenerate people were unable to maintain and defend. They were scaled or broken down by the Picts and Scots, till, under the advice of Vortigern, the Britons called in the aid of the Saxon settlers.

At this time Vortigern, as King of Kent and elected chief of the kings, was induced, according to one tradition, to settle his kingdom upon Hengist, in return for his beautiful daughter Rowena, with whom he had fallen in love.

According to another (for these traditions are obscure and uncertain) the two Saxon chiefs, Horsa and his son Hengist, undertook, at Vortigern's entreaty, the championship of the Britons. They landed at Ebbsfleet on the

coast of the Isle of Thanet, repelled the enemies of Vor-tigern, and then turned their arms against himself.

At the battle of Aylesford in Kent, Horsa was slain. At the battle of Crayford, two years later, Hengist gained a signal victory and drove the Britons from Kent. Gradually more and more Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—Germans, who occupied the country from Denmark to the mouths of the Rhine — arrived by invitation of their predecessors, or tempted by what they heard of the pleasantness of the country, and the unwarlike character of the natives ; till the whole of England, so called by the intruding Angles themselves, and who it is hence to be inferred were the most powerful of the three, was parcelled out into seven kingdoms. These tribes were heathen barbarians, idolaters, whose religion was a compound worship of the heavenly bodies and the spirits of departed heroes. The memory of their mythology is kept alive by the names still applied to the days of the week, which are respectively—the day of the sun ; of the moon ; of Tuisco ; of Wodin or Odin, the Scandinavian god of war ; of Thor, the Saxon Jupiter ; of Freya, a goddess whose attributes resembled those of the Roman Venus ; and Sætes, who, as he is represented with a bucket and a fish, may have been a water-god, but of whom, as of a host of other Saxon deities, nothing certain is known. A freebooting and piratical race, they believed in a future state of immortality in which warlike daring, the first of virtues, should be rewarded by a perpetual carouse, in which the ale or mead of their feast should be drunk out of the skulls of their enemies slain in war.

The Saxon heptarchy consisted of Kent, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Essex, Mercia, and Northumberland. The founders, first kings, or leaders of the tribes, respectively, were Hengist, Ella, Cerdic, Uffa, Erkenwin, Cridda, and Ida. These kingdoms, which were at the first no more than settlements of the followers of these freebooting sea-kings, were all established about the same time, that is, successively through the period of the sixth century of the Christian era.

An institution of the heptarchy deserving of notice, was the appointment of one of the kings to hold from time to

time the office of Bretwalda or guardian of Britain. The office was probably elective, and its nature, that of Commander-in-chief of the Saxon armies against the Picts and Scots or any foreign invader. The names of Ella, King of Sussex, or the South Saxons; Ceawlin of Wessex, or the West Saxons; Ethelbert of Kent, Redwald of East Anglia, Edwin and Oswy of Northumbria, Ethelbald of Mercia, and Egbert of Wessex, are recorded as having held the appointment of Bretwalda. To attempt to give a separate account of these petty kingdoms until their amalgamation in one united sovereignty under Egbert, would be a dry and profitless attempt. We need do no more than select one or two persons of note and incidents of importance, appertaining to the period of the heptarchy.

By far the most signal event of the period of the heptarchy was the formal introduction of the Christian religion among the Saxons. This took place during the reign, and within the kingdom, of Ethelbert, King of Kent, who had also attained the dignity of Bretwalda. Ethelbert had married a Christian princess, Bertha, daughter of Caribert, King of Paris, who worshipped in an oratory which stood on the site of St. Martin's Church, near Canterbury. This paved the way for giving effect to an incident which now occurred. In the market-place at Rome, Gregory, afterwards Pope Gregory the Great, observed three Anglo-Saxon youths who had been sold as slaves by their parents to the Roman merchants. Struck with their fair beauty, he asked to what country they belonged. It was answered that they were "Angles." "Angels," said he, "they would be if only they were Christians." "And what is their province?" He was told "Deiri" or Northumbria. "That is good," he continued. "They are called to the mercy of God from his anger" (De irâ). "And what," he asked again, "is the name of the king of that country?" It was told him, "Ælla or Alla." "Alleluia," cried he; "we must endeavour that the praises of God be sung in that land." Full of zeal for this new mission, Gregory asked and obtained the Pope's permission to go to England at the head of a sacred embassy for converting the Saxons; but his popularity among the Romans raised so strong

an opposition to his departure, that he was compelled for the present to forego the project. After Gregory's accession to the pontificate he bethought himself of the poor heathen Saxons, and sent the monk Augustine with forty attendants to preach the gospel there. When they had travelled some way through France their hearts failed them, and they sent back Augustine to represent to his holiness the perils of the undertaking, and to entreat his sanction to its abandonment. But Gregory exhorted them the more earnestly to persevere, and Augustine landed in Kent in the year 597.

A strange arrival, indeed, this, and wholly unlike all that had gone before. Unlike the armed legions of Rome, bearing aloft the eagle-standard of the empire; unlike the fair-haired sea-kings, who came with bow and sword, to slay, divide, and occupy, the olive-cheeked priests of Italy were glad to find a country far fairer, and a people far gentler than they had expected. Slowly and solemnly among the amazed countenances of the Kentish peasantry, the procession moved along, bearing aloft a picture of the crucified Saviour and a cross of silver, making the hills of Kent resound to the strange music of Latin chants and litanies. They found their way unmolested from their place of landing to Canterbury, for Ethelbert had sent them his royal licence and welcome, and had assigned them a residence in his capital, till he should converse more with them. Ere long he yielded to their arguments and those of Bertha, and was baptized into the faith of Christ, with ten thousand of his subjects. From Canterbury, as the metropolis and centre of English Christianity, other churches were founded; and of the attendants of Augustine, Justus, Mellitus, and Paulinus were appointed by him (after he had received the pall from Rome, which gave him ecclesiastical authority over the whole of England) bishops respectively of London, Rochester, and York.

The period of the heptarchy is also the age of King Arthur. If Arthur be not a mere creature of romance, he must have been a brave and noble leader of those Britons who had retired before the intruding Saxons to the corner of England now occupied by the counties of Dorsetshire, Devon-

shire, and Cornwall. But his history is hopelessly blended with fable. According to the contributions of various bards, he appears as king, or prince and knight combined, a pattern of knightly chivalry, purity, and valour, reigning in his capital of Camelot; whose banner bore the embroidered image of a golden dragon, and whose sword Excalibur was the care of fairies; who founded an order of Knights of the Round Table, at which alone they might sit and consult together, for none was better or braver than another, and there could be no precedence or inferiority among such true and perfect knights; whose only sorrow was the unfaithfulness of his wife Guinevere; who performed prodigies of valour against the Saxons; and who, when wounded mortally, was carried away to fairy-land by three fairy ladies, who saved his jewel-hilted Excalibur from the lake into which he had commanded one of his knights to throw it, and then, taking up the dying prince, disappeared from the bosom of the water. So deep was the impression of Arthur's pious and chivalrous character, that succeeding generations of his own people expected him to return to them alive, and some even refused to believe that he was dead. Another account, which sounds more like history, says that he was mortally wounded in battle against his nephew Modred, and that his body was taken away from Camlan, in Cornwall, and buried in the abbey of Glastonbury.

The name of Offa, or Uffa, King of Mercia, is conspicuous in the annals of ancient Saxon Christianity. He is said to have discovered the remains of St. Alban the martyr, and founded the abbey which bears his name in Hertfordshire. He also opened a hostelry or hall for Saxon students at Rome, the maintenance of which, by a tax on his subjects, is considered to have been the origin of the claim called Peter's Pence. Offa having gained several victories over the other Anglo-Saxon princes, defeated the Cambrian Britons, settling the country between the Wye and the Severn with Anglo-Saxons, for whose protection he built a fortification, of which traces still remain, under the name of Offa's Dyke. Offa's power was so considerable that Charlemagne formed an alliance of friendship with him, in return for which the

Mercian king sent over Alcuin, a learned priest, who became the French king's preceptor. And Charlemagne made Offa many costly presents out of spoils taken from the Huns. His memory is stained by the treacherous murder of Ethelbert, King of the East Angles, (who was at that time a resident at his court,) and the violent usurpation of that kingdom. For these crimes he endeavoured to make atonement by gifts to the Church and the tax of Peter's Pence, which has been mentioned.

Another name of the heptarchy which ought not to be omitted is that of the Venerable Bede. He flourished toward the beginning of the eighth century, and for learning and piety may be considered the luminary of the world at that period. Yet he was no more than a simple monk in the monastery of Jarrow. His works were first published at Cologne, in the year 1612. He wrote, among other works, a History of the Anglo-Saxon Church, which was so highly prized by King Alfred, that he translated it out of its original Latin into Saxon.

On the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain we seek in vain for any traces of literature or genius. The Saxon literature was nothing more than the heroic songs of their scalds or bards; hymns in praise of their gods or of their warriors. The only author of the sixth century whose works have come down to us, is Gildas, a native British historian. The conversion of the Saxons to Christianity, on the other hand, gave a great impulse to learning. Among the earliest sages of England was Aldhelm, Bishop of Sherborne, in Dorsetshire, who, in the absence of books, composed a number of little poems, which he set to tunes, and which, after mass, he sang to his flock. Before the arrival of St. Augustine in England, it is doubtful whether there was a single book in Britain; and even two hundred years later King Alfred gave the Abbot Benedict Biscop an estate of eight hides of land for a book upon geography.

One more name of the heptarchy shall be mentioned in conclusion—that of Egbert. He was a prince of the West Saxons, of such promise and popularity as to excite the jealousy of Brithric, the reigning king. Fearing the possible issues of this jealousy he withdrew into France, was

well received by Charlemagne, and serving in his armies and residing in his court, learnt those accomplishments, which, added to his natural talents and graces, enabled him to procure and adorn the sole sovereignty of England. Egbert had been seated many years on the throne of Wessex, when his dominions were attacked by Beornwulf, King of Mercia. Egbert defeated the Mercians and easily subdued also the kingdoms of Kent and Sussex, which were at the time tributary to Mercia, while the East Angles, through hatred of the Mercian rule, reluctantly placed themselves under the protection of Egbert. Thence he carried his victorious arms to Northumberland, and having subdued that also, allowed the Northumbrians, as he had allowed the others, to be governed by sovereigns who should do homage to himself and pay him tribute. It is remarkable that Egbert and his successors down to Alfred the Great, commonly called themselves Kings of Wessex. Edward the Elder, the son of Alfred, seems to have been the first to style himself King of the Angles or English. Thus about 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in England, all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were nominally united under one sovereign, an event which is placed in the year 827. He convened a council of the nation, and was solemnly crowned at Winchester.

MAIN POINTS.

Unwarlike character of the Britons. Policy of Vortigern. Hengist and Horsa. Battles of Aylesford and Crayford. Divisions of the Heptarchy. Its leaders. Saxon religion. Office of Bretwalda. Conversion to Christianity. Legends of King Arthur. Character of King Offa. The Venerable Bede. Egbert, King of Wessex.

CHAPTER IV.

SAXON PERIOD CONTINUED.

THE KINGS. A.D. 827—A.D. 1066.

EGBERT had reduced to the condition of tributaries the other kings of the heptarchy, had subjugated North

Wales as far as Snowdon, and had conquered Anglesey. He was meditating an invasion still farther north to the valley of the Clyde, when his attention was diverted by a people of foreigners, who now began to infest the coasts of England, and in time, by violence and ravages of the most barbarous kind, contrived not only to harass the Saxons severely, but even to reduce England itself to a condition of servitude. These were the Danes, a Scandinavian race of pirates and freebooters, allied to the Saxons in birth and language, but still retaining the wild heathen worship of Odin, while the Saxons, as we have seen, had become Christians.

At first these vikings or sea-kings contented themselves with plundering the coast and retiring for the winter; but after a while they entrenched themselves on the land as permanent occupants. But the King of England was also the stout defender of his country, and the Danes were routed by Egbert at Hengesdown in Cornwall in a signal defeat. His death, which occurred soon afterwards, left England exposed to their worst devastations. Egbert was buried, where he had been crowned, at Winchester.

Ethelwulf, the eldest son of Egbert, succeeded on his father's death to the throne, and married Osberga, the daughter of his cup-bearer Oslac. He had four sons, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, and Alfred. He went on a pilgrimage to Rome, accompanied by his son Alfred, and his son's tutor Swithin. This laid the foundation of that great king's education. On his way back through France, Ethelwulf married his second wife, Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald. In his reign tithes were granted to the clergy. He was frequently called upon to repulse the Danes, whose attacks were becoming more frequent and formidable, and after a disturbed reign, died and was buried at Steyning in Sussex.

Ethelbald, his eldest son and successor, married his mother-in-law Judith, but separated from her at the earnest remonstrance of Swithin, now Bishop of Winchester. Judith afterwards married Baldwin, first Earl of ~~Flanders~~, from which union was descended Matilda the ~~of~~ *William the Conqueror*. Ethelbald died in 860,

and was buried at Sherborne in Dorsetshire, his remains being afterwards removed to Salisbury. A century after his death an attempt to remove the remains of St. Swithin to the Cathedral of Winchester, which is dedicated to him, was delayed 40 days from the fifteenth of July, by excessive rain. Such is the origin of the well-known belief in the prognostic of St. Swithin's day. This king was compelled to initiate the fatal policy of buying off the attacks of the Danes, who in his time went so far as to pillage the capital of Winchester. At his death he was buried close to his brother at Sherborne. Ethelbert was succeeded by his next brother,

Ethelred, whose reign was a series of struggles with the Danes. He died of a wound received in a battle at Merton, in Surrey, and was buried at Wimborne in Dorsetshire. He created his brother Alfred an elderman, alderman, or earl, for originally the titles were synonymous, the first instance of such creations in our history. In the reign of Ethelred appears the name of Edmund, styled King of East Anglia, who was martyred by the heathen Danes for his refusal to renounce the Christian religion. He was first scourged, then tied to a tree, shot with arrows, and beheaded. The place of his burial is still known as Bury St. Edmunds.

Alfred the Great, born 849, began to reign in the twenty-second year of his age, succeeding to the throne as the youngest brother of the late king, and youngest son of Ethelwulf. We have seen that his education commenced at Rome, whither his father took him and his tutor Swithin. The charges of indifference to the responsibilities of government and deficiency of courage which belong to the earlier years of his reign, to judge from his after life, must have arisen from the inability of his subjects to appreciate his learned education. It is probable, however, that this had not been such as to fit him immediately for the life of a general, or make him a formidable opponent to the Danes; who at this time infested his dominions, by whom he was defeated in several encounters, and who virtually possessed themselves of his kingdom.

In this state of affairs, Alfred, it is said, wandered about

England in disguise of a cow-herd, and, while sharing a crust with a beggar, was visited by St. Cuthbert in a vision, who foretold to him his speedy restoration. It is to this period of his life that the story belongs of his scolding by the cotter's wife for forgetting to turn the cakes which he had been set to bake upon the hearth.

Perhaps he was even then revolving some determined course of action; and accordingly soon afterwards we hear of him at Athelney, in Somersetshire, entrenched in a fort, joined by many of his nobles, and meditating an attack on the Danes. Disguised as a minstrel, he took his harp into the Danish camp, was called to play before the general, Guthrum, and having made his observations, returned to his army. He hoped success from the revelry and supineness of the enemy, whom he suddenly attacked in the neighbourhood of Selwood Forest, and totally defeated. He spared their lives and allowed them to settle in the north of England, on the conditions of living peaceably and embracing the religion of Christ. This they did, and Alfred himself became Guthrum's sponsor at the font.

This decisive victory afforded Alfred, who well deserves the name of Great, opportunity to turn his attention to matters which were no doubt by nature and education more congenial to him—the cultivation of the arts of peace; the improvement of manufactures, for which purpose he invited artists from abroad; the laying of the foundation of a system of national jurisprudence; the division of England into hundreds and tithings; the establishment of a militia; the foundation of a monastery at Athelney; the institution or revival of an university at Oxford, and schools of learning in various parts of England, himself translating the Gospels into the Saxon tongue.

There is much in the life and character of Alfred the Great which reminds us of David king of Israel—their common adventurousness and the chequered character of their lives; the transitions from the extremes of obscurity and persecution to an elevation to supreme power; their love of centralization, law, and order; and their patronage of the arts, learning, and religion. But in one respect

the policy of Alfred embraced a wider sphere than that of David. For the Danes, with whom he had to contend, were a maritime people, and to him belongs the honour of recognising the necessity of a strong navy, if the English were to cope effectually with their powerful invaders. He laid the foundation of the English marine, introducing foreigners as shipwrights and mariners. There was, indeed, every need of such an arm of defence.

For, after an interval of fourteen years from the successful attack upon Guthrum's forces, we read of a Danish army, under Hastings, with 331 ships, landing at Appledore in Romney Marsh, then a seaport, and of battles at Farnham in Surrey, and Benfleet in Essex. Having captured Hastings and his family, Alfred spared their lives with the same chivalrous generosity which he had shown to Guthrum, on the condition of their evacuating the kingdom. No sovereign of England has left behind him a name at once so great and good as Alfred. He died at the age of fifty-two, at Farringdon in Berkshire, and was buried at Winchester.

The close of the reign of Alfred seems a fit place to make one or two observations on the subject of Saxon institutions. The monarchy was elective, though retained in one family. The leader of the army became a king, and henceforth his kindred were nobles or athelings, from æthel, noble. The rest of the people were broadly divided into patrician and plebeian, or earls and churls. The thanes were a kind of knight, holding their lands under a feudal obligation to serve in war as cavalry. The serfs were slaves, while the nobles, with the principal clergy, constituted the Witenagemot, or great council of the wise men of the nation.

The courts of justice were those of the hundred and the county or shire, which was a division much older than Alfred. A committee of one, two, or three dozen of the thanes was appointed to relieve the duties of the county court. These trials had little to do with evidence in the modern sense of the word. One mode of trial was compurgation, by which the oath of the accused, with certain others, was accepted in proof of his innocence.

Another trial was the ordeal (urtheil trial), which consisted of some dangerous experiment—the taking hold of red-hot metal; the walking over hot metal blindfold; the plunging of the hand into boiling water; or of the body, with the limbs bound, to sink or swim in water. Capital punishment was inflicted in the worst cases, but ordinarily speaking, offences against the laws were visited by fines and forfeitures.

Edward I., or Elder, son of Alfred and the Mercian Princess Elswitha, succeeded to his father's throne, and was crowned at Kingston-on-Thames. His reign was for a time disturbed by attempts to gain the crown on the part of Ethelwald, his cousin, a son of an elder brother of Alfred, which were however quelled by Edward, with the assistance of his sister Elfrida. Edward was a benefactor to the University of Cambridge; and it is remarkable that, like his father, he both died at Farringdon and was buried at Winchester.

Athelstan, his eldest son, was also crowned at Kingston in Surrey. In this reign a combination was formed against the kingdom by the Danes and Scotch, which was entirely frustrated. For twenty years Athelstan's court was an asylum to his sister, the Queen of France, and her son, till the latter was restored to the throne.

The king placed copies of the Saxon Scriptures in the churches, and raised to the rank of thane every merchant who had made three voyages; thus following in the steps of Alfred in encouraging commerce and fostering the navy of England.

This reign is the period of the famous character Guy, Earl of Warwick, the conqueror of the Danish giant Colbrand, in whose story history and romance seem hopelessly confounded. This king was buried at Malmesbury in Wiltshire.

Edmund I., brother of Athelstan, succeeded him at the age of eighteen. The Danes, under Anlaf, were signally defeated; but the assassination of the king at Pucklechurch in Gloucestershire, by the outlaw Liofa, put an end to the national hopes of peace. He left two infant sons, Edwin and Edgar, who were set aside by the prelates and nobles, on the score of their extreme youth, and

Edred, the third son of Edward the Elder, was made king. In this transaction we see the distinct recognition of a hereditary monarchy, in which, however, the selection of an individual of the family for the throne rested, in critical cases, with that council of the kingdom—the Witenagemot, as it was called—who were best able to decide on the requirements of the nation during a period of peril and disturbance, especially from the Danes, who had not ceased to harass the realm since the accession of Egbert to the sole sovereignty. Edred seems to have spent a comparatively peaceful reign of nine years, from 946 to 955. He rebuilt the Abbey of Glastonbury, and lived under the influence of its Abbot, Dunstan, who to his determination of will and administrative talents, added laborious study, and skill in manufactures and artistic designs. Edred died at Frome, of a quinsy, and was buried at Winchester.

Edwy, or Edwin, the eldest son of Edmund I., succeeded his uncle at the age of fourteen. He provoked the anger of Dunstan by marrying Elgiva, a princess of great beauty, within the degrees of relationship to the king which were prohibited by the church. The attachment of Edwy was, however, too strong to be weaned from his bride; and between the king and queen on the one side, and Dunstan and the clergy on the other, a lasting feud was established which led to the banishment of Dunstan. This was a sentence passed upon him by the king and such nobles as supported him, on the ground of misappropriation of the public moneys with which he had been entrusted, and of which the proud monk had refused to give account. Soon afterwards Elgiva died—this, and a successful revolt of his brother Edgar, who compelled Edwy to recognise him as King of England north of the Thames, broke the heart of Edwy, so that he died in the year 957. He was buried at Winchester.

Edgar became now sole King of England, being consecrated at Bath. He commuted Athelstan's tax upon the Welsh for an annual tribute of 300 wolves' heads. Dunstan was restored to power, and was raised by Edgar and his parliament in council successively to the dignities of

Bishop of Worcester and London, and Archbishop of Canterbury.

The romantic story of Edgar and Elfrida deserves passing notice. Edgar had heard of the beauty of Elfrida, the daughter of the Earl of Devonshire. He sent his confidential friend and servant Ethelwald to verify, by eye-witness, the fame of her beauty, and give information to the king; but the eye which had been deputed only to inspect was entranced with the loveliness of the object. He asked for, and gained her in marriage. Meanwhile the king heard more and more of her beauty, and determined to see her, having abandoned the project of courting her, in consequence of Ethelwald's artful depreciations. In vain did the husband seek to dissuade the king from his intended visit. In fear of his life, he confessed to Elfrida that he had offered her the hand of a subject, though he had been sent to her as the messenger of a king. Disappointed and deceived, Elfrida disdained the entreaty of Ethelwald to conceal or impair her beauty by an unbecoming dress. She adorned herself to the utmost, enjoyed the admiration of the king, and, Ethelwald falling by an unknown hand, she became soon afterwards queen.

The king died in 975, and was buried at Glastonbury, after a reign of much usefulness. His personal vanity, which induced him to compel eight princes to row him in his barge on the Dee at Chester, may be excused on the score of the real good which he effected.

We have noticed his plan for ridding Wales of wolves, and so opening the lands for cultivation and settlement, and the forests for game.

In addition to this measure he prosecuted the naval policy of Alfred and Athelstan, so that the English marine amounted in his reign to 360 ships—a larger fleet than that which, under the Dane Hastings, had invaded England in the time of Alfred. He was, as might be supposed from his respect for Dunstan, a patron of monasteries, and erected fifty for the order of the Benedictines, who perhaps, more than any other in the middle ages, kept up through a period of barbarism some taste for literature, and were elegant copyists and illuminators, as well as

judicious architects, agriculturists, and gardeners. Edgar was succeeded by his son,

Edward II., surnamed the Martyr. His mother was a daughter of the Earl Ordmer, to whom Edgar had been espoused previously to the romance of Elfrida. He reigned but three years after his coronation at Kingston, being stabbed in the back while drinking at Corfe Castle in Dorsetshire, out of a two-handled tankard placed in his hand by his step-mother Elfrida, whom he had gone to visit. He was buried at Wareham, in the neighbourhood, but his body was, by the monks, removed three years afterwards and interred at Shaftesbury in the same county.

The reign of Edward II. is notable for the council held at Calne in 978, under the presidency of Dunstan, in which the chief of the nobles and prelates fell and were killed by the giving way of the floor, Dunstan himself being saved by his singular piety, and the additional fact that a beam happened to support the floor beneath his chair.

Ethelred II., surnamed the Unready, was half-brother to Edward II. His coronation was marked by the first instance of a coronation oath, that he would reign with justice and for the good of the people. The oath was administered by Dunstan, and was the last public act of that remarkable man. His death, in 988, left the kingdom more than ever exposed to the attacks of the Danes.

The first land tax of England was the Dane-geld of a shilling on every hide of land, which was levied in this reign.

It had the usual effect of such subsidies—namely, to make those whose power is so bought off yet more rapacious; and the king had recourse to the ignoble expedient of massacring a number of those whom he could not venture to meet in the field. It was to avenge this massacre that Sweyn, King of Denmark, commenced a desolating war of ten years, till Ethelred, driven out of his kingdom, took refuge in Normandy.

Sweyn, in 1013, declared himself king, but died at Gainsborough in the following year, and was succeeded by his son Canute.

Ethelred was now restored, but died next year.

It merits notice that Ethelred and Emma, the sister of the Duke of Normandy, were the parents of Edward the Confessor, in whom it will be seen, therefore, that the Norman and Saxon races were mingled. Emma afterwards married Canute.

Canute was now on the throne ; but this did not prevent Edmund II., the eldest son of Ethelred the Unready, and surnamed Ironsides from his courage in battle, from assuming the crown at Kingston. The attempt, however, cost him his life, for six months afterwards he was murdered by Edric at Oxford, and buried at Glastonbury.

The character of Canute is so given by chroniclers as to reverse the more common change from tenderness in youth to tyranny or cruelty in after years. It is said that, as a youth, he was savage, vindictive, and ungenerous, but became mild and just when fully established in his English dominions. Such a case seems natural. As in Nero, the cruelty of his nature was mitigated by tender years, and displayed itself in the season of maturity and power, so in Canute the generosity of his disposition was kept in abeyance by his hard and adventurous life, but showed itself as soon as he was in a position to exercise it. He, too, has received the title of "Great," which would hardly have been accorded to him by early chroniclers, mostly ecclesiastics, had he been no more than the conqueror-king of an alien race—the king, as he called himself with no little pomp and style, "of England, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden."

In one especial respect his character deserves commendation at our hands. He allowed himself to be converted to Christianity. Like Alfred, he came within the humanizing influence of the Church, and paid a visit to Rome. It is impossible not to see traces of good resulting from this visit. From Rome he sent a proclamation to England, to the effect that he purposed to govern with justice, and to compensate, as far as he might, for past negligence or violence.

If the story of his rebuking the flattery of his courtiers, by seating himself on the sands at Southampton, and showing them how that, in spite of his command to retreat

from touching his feet, the advancing tide continued to execute the Creator's behests, be not *literal* truth, it at least spoke *substantial* truth. If it be not regarded as historical, it at least illustrated, no doubt, many a deed done and word spoken by the great king in the same spirit of reverence toward the Almighty; while the tradition that, toward the close of his reign, he ceased to wear his crown, as if in the constant recognition of the presence of One whom he regarded as the King of kings, seems to indicate a sentiment which had become habitual to him. Canute died at Shaftesbury in 1036, and was buried at Winchester. He was succeeded by

Harold, surnamed Harefoot, from his swiftness in running, his illegitimate son. Alfred, the son of Ethelred the Unready, had been seized by Godwin, Earl of Kent, and murdered. The late king left three sons behind him: Sweyn, who was crowned King of Norway; Hardicanute, put in possession of Denmark; and Harold, who succeeded to his father's throne. Harold died at Oxford, and was buried at Winchester.

Hardicanute, or Canute the Hardy, succeeded his half-brother Harold. In impotent revenge for the murder of Alfred, he caused the body of Harold to be disinterred, decapitated, and thrown into the Thames. Threatening Earl Godwin with similar treatment, his anger was disarmed by the policy of that nobleman, who presented him with a magnificent ship, and a crew of eighty warriors, splendidly accoutred. The king died of intemperance, after a Danish marriage feast, in Lambeth, and was buried at Winchester, twenty-eight years after Sweyn's usurpation. His death terminated the Danish dynasty in England.

Edward III., surnamed the Confessor by the monks, from the austerity of his life, the son of Ethelred the Unready, by Emma, the sister of Richard Duke of Normandy, renewed, with his accession, the Saxon line of descent, to the great joy of the English people, and was crowned at Winchester in 1042.

In consequence of this Norman relationship, he resided, first in his boyhood and afterwards in middle age, with William, Duke of Normandy, who visited him in England;

and, in connexion with the great question about the right of succession to the English crown, it is said that Edward promised William the reversion of it during their stay in Normandy.

The Confessor married Editha, daughter of Earl Godwin, but cared nothing for married life, and died childless. His disposition was devout, rather than active; yet to him the English people owed many an improvement in their laws, and many a concession in favour of liberty. He repealed the tax of Danegeld, of which the purpose had now happily passed away, rebuilt Westminster Abbey, and introduced the use of the Great Seal, which has been continued from his era to our own. He died in 1066, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, which he had enlarged and enriched. A little less than a hundred years afterwards Edward was canonized at Rome, when Henry II. built a sumptuous shrine over his remains, which had been placed in a costly vase of gold and precious stones by the Conqueror.

Harold II., eldest son of Earl Godwin, and by his mother grandson to Canute, now took possession of the English throne. In this he was supported by the Saxon Parliament or Witan. He had, however, previously sworn upon the relics of martyrs (the most solemn form of oath) that he would make no such attempt. His brother Tostig, and the King of Norway, who opposed him, were slain in battle; but he had scarcely gained this victory, when William, Duke of Normandy, with a fleet of eight hundred ships, and an army of sixty thousand men, landed on the Sussex coast, at Pevensey, to claim the English crown.

William was willing to leave the claim to arbitration, or single combat, but Harold preferring battle, a battle was accordingly fought, of which the particulars will be given in the next reign. Harold was buried in the Abbey of Waltham, which he had himself founded.

MAIN POINTS.

List of Saxon Kings.—Egbert, Ethelwulf, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, Alfred, Edward the Elder, Athelstan, Edmund I., Edred, Edwy, Edgar, Edward II., Ethelred II., Edmund II., Sweyn, Canute, Harold I., Hardicanute, Edward III. or the Confessor, Harold II.

First Danish attack on England. Victory of Egbert at Hengesdown. Egbert's four sons. Character and legend of St. Swithin. Danish invasions and occupations. Edmund the Martyr. Alfred's education. Early character. Story of the cakes. Victory over Guthrum. His learning and government. Comparison with King David. Saxon classes and trials. Alfred's victory over Hastings. University of Oxford. Legend of Guy, Earl of Warwick. Copies of Saxon scriptures. Witenagemot. Dunstan. Edwy and Elgiva. Edgar and Elfrida. Edgar's improvement of Wales and naval policy. Services of the Benedictines. Council of Calne. Danegeld. Danish kings. Character of Canute. Norman relations of the Confessor.

CHAPTER V.

NORMAN LINE. A.D. 1066—A.D. 1154.

WILLIAM I. A.D. 1066—A.D. 1087.

THE name of Norman is so prominent a one in our history, that we must consider its meaning in a few words. As far back as the year 876, that is, in the year in which King Alfred made peace with Guthrum and his Danes, Rollo, Rolf, or Raoul, a Norwegian king, landed on the northern shores of France, in what was then the province of Neustria. He steered his ships up the mouth of the Seine, and where Havre now stands the daring pirate planted his standard. Having secured his own footing, he treated the people of the country with such forbearance and kindness that they soon came to desire to be the subjects of a brave and venturesome, rather than of a weak king, such as Charles the Simple, who then sat on the throne of France. In a few years both parties had come to an agreement, and Rollo was to govern the province of Neustria as Duke, on condition of doing homage to the French king for the Duchy, which was afterwards called Normandy, after the Northmen who had acquired it. Rollo was baptized into the Christian faith by the Archbishop of Rouen, and received in marriage Gisele or Cicely, daughter of Robert, Duke of France. The Norman Duchy was held successively by the son of Rollo, William Longue Epée, or Long Sword; Richard, his son, named Sans Peur; Richard II.,

son of Sans Peur, called the Good, who was succeeded by Richard, who, in his turn, was poisoned by his brother, Robert the Devil, the father of William the Conqueror, by Arlette, the fair daughter of a tanner, in the town of Falaise.

The Conqueror was born in the city of his mother, in the year 1027. He was crowned on Christmas day, 1066, at Westminster, by Archbishop Aldred of York, as if desirous of giving every possible sanction to his title to the crown of England. He reigned 52 years in Normandy and 21 in England. He married Matilda, daughter of Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, who descended from that Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald, and widow of Ethelwulf, who, being separated by Swithin Bishop of Winchester from her son-in-law Ethelbald, whom she had married, was espoused a third time to Baldwin the great Earl of Flanders. The wife of the Conqueror was crowned two years after her husband's accession.

The Conqueror's family consisted of four sons and five daughters: Robert, surnamed Courthose, from the shortness of his legs; Richard; William, who succeeded him; and Henry, who became Henry I. of England. Of the daughters, Adela married Stephen, Count of Blois; Cecilia became a nun; Constance married the Duke of Brittany, and of the two others little is known.

William met with his death by accident. During the siege of Mantes, in a war against the French king, his horse placed his feet upon some hot ashes, and plunged so violently as to throw his rider against the pommel of the saddle. Of this injury he died at Hermentrude near Rouen, and was buried at Caen.

It is said that the funeral oration in the cathedral had been just concluded by the Bishop of Evreux, when a protesting voice from the congregation claimed compensation by the justice of heaven, for the house and land which the Conqueror had forcibly taken from the complainant for the site of the church in which he was then interred; and that this solemn claim was granted.

The ostensible title of William to the British crown had lain in the will of Edward the Confessor, who was re-

lated to William, inasmuch as his father, Ethelred, had married Emma, the sister of the Duke of Normandy. The pope also had favoured his pretensions, and declared against Harold as an usurper. With this title for his invasion William found himself at the head of an army of 60,000 men and a fleet of 800 ships. He crossed the English channel in the calm of the early summer, and landed at Pevensey, near Hastings, on the coast of Sussex.

Harold met him flushed with recent conquest over the Norwegians who had invaded England. The English army was active, valiant, and strongly attached to their leader. Yet they would willingly have rested after the fatigues of the Norwegian war. The army was in Yorkshire, and Harold himself having received a wound in battle was reposing in the town of York. But the tidings of the Normans' approach permitted not a moment's delay. William's army was now upon English soil. They entrenched their position on the coast, especially to protect and preserve their ships. William now sent forth proclamations announcing his claim to the throne, as the heir of Edward the Confessor, the ground on which, rather than any right of conquest, he always preferred to rest his claim to England. And when the morning came, he received bare-headed the consecrated sacrament in the open air, as if desiring and avowing all along the sanction of religion to his undertaking.

William proposed to decide the question between them by single combat, but this Harold declined, and the two armies prepared for an engagement the next day, the Normans having spent the night in devotion, the English in revelry.

The battle began in the early morning, Harold fighting on foot and William on horseback; the Normans having generally the advantage at a distance in their cross-bows, while the English retaliated heavily at close quarters with their bills. The battle was closely contested. The personal efforts of William were needed more than once to rally his men. His horse was killed and the Normans fled. Another was mounted. At length he executed a stratagem; he feigned a retreat, then suddenly wheeling

round, charged and broke through the English ranks. Again the English rallied under their undaunted and indefatigable leader; but an arrow had winged its way to Harold's brain. He fell sword in hand, his two brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, falling by his side, and the army surrendered to the invader.

One of the most interesting relics of the age of William the Conqueror is the Bayeux tapestry, which is said to have been wrought under the direction and partly by the hands of Matilda, the wife of the Conqueror. It is preserved in the Norman Cathedral of Bayeux. The brilliance of its colouring has of course faded, but the work is regarded as of immense value, not only for its skill and antiquity, but as an historic representation of the chief events of the Conquest, and illustrative of the characters, manners, and dress of the period. The dimensions of the tapestry are peculiar. It is nineteen inches in breadth and sixty-eight yards in length.

William was essentially a warrior, proud and valiant, capable it is said of despotic acts, of short stature and great muscular strength, capable of enduring much fatigue and hardship.

He engaged in four wars, one that which resulted in the conquest of England, another against his son Robert, who rebelled against him and unknowingly wounded him at the siege of Gerberoy, a third against Philip of France, who had stirred up a Norman rebellion of William's subjects (the king meeting his death in the course of this war), and a fourth against Malcolm King of Scotland, whom he had compelled to do homage for his kingdom.

The country of England was precariously held by the Conqueror in subjection. Insurrection took place, especially in the north and the south-west.

The Curfew, Couvre-feu, or Cover-fire bell was designed, perhaps, partly to stop seditious meetings, as the universal signal for extinguishing all fires or lights at eight o'clock in the evening; but it was, it must be remembered, already a native custom of the Normans, employed as a preventive against fire, in times when conflagrations were especially disastrous owing to the light and combustible materials with which the houses were built.

Persons were invested throughout England with the authority of Justices of the Peace, and especially it was the policy of William to establish castles as strongholds of government in various parts of the kingdom, as the Tower of London, probably built on the site of an earlier, perhaps, Roman fortification, Norwich, Winchester, York, Nottingham, and Hereford.

He fortified or repaired the Cinque Ports—Dover, Romney, Hastings, Hythe, and Sandwich. Ninety thousand acres were converted into hunting-preserves, many native villages being destroyed for the purpose, and called the New Forest in Hampshire. Norman laws, manners, dress, language, and courts of justice were established, and the feudal system in a far more developed form than had been known among the Saxons. Normans were promoted to the high offices of Church and State. Stigand was deposed from the See of Canterbury after having been overlooked at the king's coronation in favour of Aldred of York, and Lanfranc, a Norman, raised to his place. Little leisurely enjoyment had the Conqueror of his newly acquired kingdom. After the battle of Hastings the Saxons made a last great effort to regain their liberties, and proclaimed as their king, Edgar Atheling, son of Edward the Outlaw, but the promptitude of William terrified Edgar himself into submission, which he tendered at the camp. With all his pride of power the commencement of William's reign was marked by a determination to administer justice impartially to his subjects; but in 1067 he determined to revisit Normandy, and his absence led to fatal results. He had left as regents in England his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz-Osborne, Earl of Hereford. The precautions of the regents, especially in the erection of castles and fortifications to overawe the country, alienated the people yet farther, and William was compelled to return to quell the insurrection. Another Saxon rising took place under Edward and Morcar, the sons of Harold, aided by Cospatric, Earl of Northumberland, and the Kings of Wales, Scotland, and Denmark. William, however, quelled the conspiracy, wresting York out of their hands. In the next year he beat back an invasion of Danes who had landed in the Humber, and put a garrison

of 3000 Normans to the sword. It was now that William laid waste the land between the Humber and the Tees, with a sacrifice, it is said, of 100,000 lives. It is to be hoped, and indeed, seems probable, that this was not a measure of retaliation but of defence against the Scots and Danes. Still it is certain that the rigorous measures of the Conqueror drove many of the Saxon nobility out of England altogether. Some of these, with other Northmen, enlisted in the army of the Byzantine Emperor, and formed the celebrated body-guard of the Varangians.

The last effort made by the Saxons to recover their liberty was under Hereward, who collected a force which endeavoured to establish a position for itself in the marshes of the Isle of Ely. He was supported by the Earls Edwin and Morcar. But a roadway across the fens, and pontoons of flat-bottomed boats, enabled William to force the insurgents' position. Hereward fought his way out, and was afterwards received into William's favour. Morcar was thrown into prison, where he died. Edwin was slain, and Edgar Atheling, who was also found among the conspirators, submitted himself a second time to the Conqueror. He received from William a second pardon, and was permitted to retire with a pension to Rouen. After this we hear no more of Saxon insurrections; but Roger, Earl of Hereford, son of Fitz-Osborne, with the Saxon Earl Waltheof, who had married Judith, the Conqueror's niece, raised a formidable conspiracy of the Normans themselves. It was revealed to William by Judith, and so defeated. Hereford was imprisoned, and Waltheof suffered death.

William compiled the survey called the Domesday Book, which registered the features of the country, the number and extent of the estates, and the names of their proprietors. It is still preserved in two parchment volumes in the Library of the Rolls.

The Channel Islands, which were never French in the modern sense of the term, though the native language is a dialect of the French, passed at this time to England.

It is estimated that the population of England at this time was about two millions, and that it doubled itself in six centuries.

It is remarkable that the vine was at this time far more extensively cultivated than at present, and that no less than thirty-eight vineyards appear among the estates of Domesday Book.

We have seen that in the Saxon times a sort of feudal system existed; but this was established in a far more developed form by the Norman conquest. The chief characteristic of this system was the tenure of land. The entire kingdom was presumed in law to be vested in the king, who thus possessed the power of rewarding his faithful followers, of securing their fidelity, and providing the army and nation with a centre for its whole military system in his own person. The conditions on which land was so held were, assistance to the king in war by bringing into the field a body of retainers proportioned to the estate or "feud." But such feuds, being in the first instance very extensive, it became necessary that the great lords, who held under the king, should have the power of subdividing their feuds to be held as inferior tenure by inferior lords, who should owe them allegiance of the same nature as they owed directly to the king. These lords of tenure became in time despotic, exercising powers of life and death in their courts. If a knight's fee, or the proportion of feudal land to a mounted horseman, be rightly computed at about two and a half hides of land, a hide being 120 acres, a mounted horseman would be due upon every 300 or 400 acres of land; and when we consider that more than 60,000 of these knights' fees were established at the conquest, we may form an estimate of the powerful and compact system of military organization by which the land of the Saxons was held in subjection and possession by their Norman masters. Other rights followed of the most inquisitorial nature. The king was by right guardian of his tenant's infant ward, whose custody and the usufruct of his land he might sell to the highest bidder, and in the same manner the lord might sell the heiress of his vassal to marriage.

It is almost impossible to form an opinion of the natural character of William the Conqueror. His public acts necessarily relate to war or subjugation. His bravery is incontestable; and if he appeared sometimes to be wanting

in generosity and of a domineering spirit toward his new subjects, we are bound to bear in mind the peculiar relation in which he stood to them. He was a foreigner, against whom rebellions and conspiracies were frequently set on foot: one in particular had for its object the massacre of the Normans while they should be engaged at their devotions on Ash-Wednesday. Besides which, he was in a constant dilemma in the matter of government; for his Norman dominions could not be adequately governed while he was in England, nor England controlled during his stay in Normandy. No bond of union beyond the person of the ruler connected the kingdom with the duchy, while they of his own household were so far his foes as to avail themselves of these difficulties. He was most unhappy in the unfilial opposition of his son Robert, ever popular with the Normans, and abetted by the King of France against his father. Such circumstances must have tended to raise, and, indeed, justify constant suspicion, and to leave little place for leniency of rule.

In looking back to the time when the Norman invader first planted his foot as a victor upon English soil, it is natural to the reader of history to feel a temptation to regret that the issue was not different. The lapse of 800 years has not sufficiently impressed upon our minds that we are a mixed race descended from Saxon and Norman alike. We still think of England as Saxon, defended by its rightful owners, rude, yet brave, against a foreign and a French invasion. We, perhaps, seldom carry our thoughts yet farther back up the stream of history, and reflect how that in the eleventh century the Normans were doing the work of the Saxons in the fifth. Rather, the Saxon invasion was a barbarous intrusion upon a country by a race who brought with them no civilizing influence,—oppressors and exterminators of the Britons. If the Normans oppressed the Saxon race, as undoubtedly they did, they brought with them laws, manners, and a language far in advance of the people they subdued. In short, England has profited by its invasion. So was it when the civilization of Rome was planted on the soil of the barbarous islanders by Cæsar. So was it when

British effeminacy was supplanted by Saxon valour and sturdiness. So, yet farther, was it when Norman refinement and chivalry were superadded to those sterling Saxon qualities which we trust still survive in our people. And if our race be mighty in history, yet mightier things are in store for its acquisition and achievement. Yet we speak but partial truth when we call it Anglo-Saxon; for Anglo-Norman is its name.

MAIN POINTS.

Origin of Norman dynasty. Rollo and his descendants. Coronation of the Conqueror. Wife and family. Death and burial. His own allegation of title to English crown. Battle of Hastings. Wars of his reign. Curfew. Erection of castles and promotion of Normans. His devastations of the country. Saxon insurrections. Varangians. Domesday Book. Outline of feudal system. Character and difficulties of the Conqueror. Results to England of its several invasions.

CHAPTER VI.

WILLIAM II. A.D. 1087—A.D. 1100.

WILLIAM II., surnamed Rufus or Red-haired, was, as we have seen, the third son of the Conqueror, and ascended the English throne by virtue of his father's will and the consent of the great council of the nation, to the exclusion of his brother Robert.

The new monarch was born in 1057, in Normandy, crowned when he was thirty years old, by Archbishop Lanfranc, at Westminster, and reigned till 1100. He had lost no time in bringing from Normandy his father's warrant for the consecration. He led an unmarried life.

His claim to the crown was not altogether pleasing to the nobility, who were induced to revolt against him by Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, the brother of the Conqueror, in favour of his brother Robert, but the insurrection was soon suppressed. But if Robert was the most popular, William was the most energetic of the brothers: in the character of the former there appeared a wild spirit of adventure, uncontrolled by any steadiness of aim. William, on the other hand, was at least actively alive to his own

interests. On landing in England he seized the castles of Dover, Pevensey, and Hastings, and the royal treasure, amounting to £60,000, at Winchester. No sooner was a conspiracy reported in favour of his brother than he appeared upon the spot. Without loss of time he had subdued the disaffected by arms or by persuasion, had taken them into favour or banished them the kingdom, and confiscated their estates. Often, therefore, as such persons invited Robert to come over and take possession of William's crown, William himself contrived that their invitations should never be worth accepting. On the other hand, Rufus failed when he acted aggressively against his brother, and an invasion of Robert's Norman territory was signally unsuccessful.

The contest was determined by the nobles, who brought about an arrangement between the brothers, that if either died without an heir, his dominions should pass to the surviving brother. The younger brother, who had not been considered in the treaty, threw himself into the fortress of St. Michael's Mount, but being forced to capitulate, retired into poverty and privacy. Several romantic stories are told of this siege. As Robert and William, by their joint forces, had nearly reduced their brother by want of water, the former sent him some pipes of wine for his own table. Being reproved by William, his answer was, "What, shall I suffer my brother to die of thirst; where shall we find another when he is gone?"

William happened to be riding alone, when he was attacked by two soldiers and thrown to the ground. He was on the point of being despatched, when he cried out, "Hold, knaves, I am the King of England." The soldiers spared the royal life, and received a royal reward.

A singular accident cost the king the loss of an eye, and at the same time is said to have given their surname to one of the most distinguished families of England. Malcolm III., of Scotland, having possessed himself of the castle of Alnwick, in Northumberland, the besieged refused to surrender to any but the king himself, who accordingly approached the castle to receive the keys; they were brought to him by Robert de Mowbray, upon the top of a lance,

who, upon the king putting out his hand to take them, pierced his eye, and received from the exploit the surname of Pierce Eye or Percy, the family name of the Dukes of Northumberland.

In this reign the first crusade was preached and undertaken for the rescue of Palestine from the infidels. Sharing in the general enthusiasm which had been raised by Peter the Hermit for recovering the holy sepulchre from the Saracens, Robert mortgaged his Norman dominions to William for ten thousand marks—a mark being worth twelve shillings and fourpence.

The last invasion of the Northmen took place in this reign. Magnus, King of Norway, made two attacks on England. In the former he was repulsed from the Isle of Anglesey, and in the latter he lost his life.

William strengthened the fortifications of the Tower of London, which his father had built, and built Westminster Hall, which was pulled down and rebuilt in the reign of Richard II. Like his father, the king dealt freely with Church property and appointments. From the death of Lanfranc in 1089, till 1093, the Archbishopric of Canterbury was kept vacant, and even after Anselm had been appointed, the king for some time retained the revenues in his own hands.

During the latter years of his reign William was embroiled in conflict with the Church. He had fallen into a dangerous sickness, during which he repented of his rapacity, especially of his forced vacation of the see of Canterbury; but with returning health he forgot all his pious resolutions of amendment and restitution. In these rapacious courses Anselm was his determined opponent—an opponent all the more powerful and formidable from the high estimation in which he was held by the people for his piety and learning. There was, at this time, a schism in the Church, and the papal chair was claimed by two rival popes, Urban and Clement. Anselm, who, as Abbot of Bec in Normandy, had declared for Urban, was bent, without the king's consent, upon introducing his authority into England. William, at first, threatened to depose the primate, but was disposed, afterwards, to acknowledge

Urban as pope, and the quarrel seemed at an end. It broke out afresh. The king undertook an expedition to Wales, and demanded of Anselm his military contingent or feudal service. The troops were furnished, but badly accoutred; the king threatened prosecution; the primate pleaded the king's seizure of the Church revenues. The dispute rose high, and Anselm, by the king's permission, took refuge at Rome with Urban, who warmly espoused his cause, and even threatened William with excommunication.

The last year of Rufus was memorable for the irruption of the sea upon the property of Godwin, Earl of Kent, which are called from him the Goodwin Sands, near Deal.

The death of the king is a mystery. He died in the solitude of the New Forest, which his father had enclosed for a hunting ground. It is said that an arrow, shot by Sir Walter Tyrell at a stag, glanced from a tree and shot the king to the heart.

At least, such is the commonly received account. On the other hand, it seems equally probable that in the solitude of the hunting ground his death may have been compassed by unfair means. His Saxon subjects saw in the circumstances of it a providential retribution for that rapacity which had led William the Conqueror to lay waste fields and villages to form forests for the royal pleasures of the chase.

The character of William was violent, tyrannical, and treacherous; the extremes of rapacity and prodigality—no rare combination—met in his disposition. His abilities, generally speaking, for he was not without penetration and promptitude, were employed for his own purposes; yet his reign is marked by more than one work of national importance. He built a new bridge across the Thames, at London; he surrounded the Tower, which had been built by his father, with an outer wall of fortification, and built Westminster Hall, of which the original foundation may still be partly seen as it was laid in the reign of the second Norman King of England.

The sudden death of the king put a stop to a proceeding which, had it taken place must have been productive of

important results for advantage or disadvantage. The Earl of Poitiers and Guienne, carried away by the general enthusiasm for the crusades, and not having money enough for the expedition, mortgaged his earldom to Rufus, who had eagerly accepted the offer, and had prepared a fleet and army to take the occupation of those dominions, when the accident occurred which deprived him of his life.

MAIN POINTS.

William's claims to the throne. Coronation. Single life. Revolt under Odo. Contrast of William and Robert his brother. Capitulation. Treatment of younger brother. Siege of St. Michael's Mount. Invasion of Malcolm III., King of Scotland. Legend of the Percy family. Crusades. Mortgage to William of Robert's Norman dominions. His treatment of the Church. Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury. Goodwin Sands. Manner of the king's death. Public works of this reign.

CHAPTER VII.

HENRY I. A.D. 1100—A.D. 1135.

HENRY I., surnamed Beauclerc or the Scholar, being the youngest son of William the Conqueror, seized on the crown of England as soon as he heard of the death of his brother Rufus, so that the designs of Robert were for the second time anticipated.

Henry was hunting with Rufus in the New Forest when the news of his brother's death reached him. He lost not a moment in taking possession of the royal treasure at Winchester. Thence he repaired in all haste to London, where he prevailed on a council of prelates and nobles to acknowledge him as king, and in less than three days from his brother's death he was crowned by Maurice, Bishop of London.

Henry was born at Selby in Yorkshire in 1070, crowned at Westminster in 1100, and reigned till 1135.

He was twice married—first to Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III., King of Scotland, and niece of Edgar Atheling, thus forming for himself an additional link to the

Saxon line and interests; and four years after her death in 1117, to Adelais, daughter of Godfrey, Duke of Louvain, by whom he had no issue.

By his wife Matilda he had two children—a son, William, who died before him, and a daughter, whose name is conspicuous in English history, Matilda, who married first Henry V., Emperor of Germany, and afterwards Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou. From this latter union sprang Henry II. of England, the first of the Plantagenet line of kings.

His brother Robert was still engaged in the crusade when Henry introduced himself to the Council of Barons which now appears for the first time in our history in the place of the Saxon Witenagemot. Before this council Henry gave the fairest promises. "He would never seize the revenues of see or abbey during a vacancy. He would not oppress the tenants of the crown. He would, for the people's sake, observe all the laws of King Edward the Confessor." He granted a charter to this effect to the nobles, and a commercial charter to the city of London, which laid the foundation of their corporation. He recalled Anselm from his exile, and by his sanction was enabled to marry Matilda, who had taken the veil, though not, as she herself alleged, the vows of the convent, and was living as a nun at Romsey in Hampshire. No act of his reign gained for the king so much popularity as this union of himself with the niece of the Saxon Edgar Atheling.

Like the reigns of his father and brother, that of Henry I. was marked by hostilities carried on in Normandy.

These were brought on by Robert, who, having been unjustly defrauded of his English dominions, and being supported by the sympathy of many English barons, invaded his brother's kingdom. No battle took place, but through the mediation of Anselm it was agreed that Robert should relinquish all pretensions to the English crown on receiving an annual pension of 3000 marks. But Robert was so unfit to govern his duchy that Henry, at the invitation of the Norman nobles, landed in Normandy with an army in 1105. Robert, who had warred with his father and elder brother, fell into the hands of his younger

brother, who defeated him at the battle of Tinchebray, and carried him captive to England. There he shut him up in the Castle of Cardiff, and deprived him of his sight by the cruel expedient of a red-hot metal basin applied to his eyes.

Robert dragged out a miserable confinement for twenty-seven years, when he died and was buried at Gloucester.

Edgar Atheling, who had joined the expedition of Duke Robert to Palestine, was among the 10,000 prisoners captured at Tinchebray. He received his liberty from the king, and lived in privacy upon a pension to an advanced age in England. Henry was now Duke of Normandy as well as King of England.

During the absence of Robert, Louis VI. of France had invested William, Robert's son, with the dukedom. A war of three years was the consequence, and Henry having gained the battle of Brenville then first annexed the duchy to the crown of England. Henry's son William accordingly recognised it as a fief under the French king, and did homage for it.

To conciliate his Saxon subjects Henry abolished the curfew, and relaxed the severity of some of his father's laws. Taxes upon the people, and the retention in his own hands of bishoprics and other ecclesiastical revenues, were the modes which the king adopted for paying this and other of his obligations, till he released himself of his debts to his brother by seizing his person, as we have described.

We have said that Henry had a son who died before him. This son William was wrecked in the Race of Alderney, on his return from a visit to Normandy, whither he had gone to receive the homage of his barons. More than a hundred and forty noblemen and several ladies of rank perished, a butcher of Rouen alone escaping by clinging to the mast of the ship, whose name was the *Blanche Nef*. This disaster occurred in 1120. For some time the calamity was kept a secret from the king by those who knew his affection for his son; but when the tidings were imparted to him he fainted away, and was never afterwards seen to smile.

It only remained for him to settle the succession upon his surviving daughter Matilda.

More than one indication appears in this reign of the condition of English trade and society becoming gradually more settled. A stone bridge was thrown over the river Lea by Queen Matilda, which was called Bow Bridge, from the arches which supported it. A rental in money took the place of former primitive payments in kind. An improvement was made in the debased coinage; measures of justice more stringently executed; a standard of weights and measures published, and the measure of the yard taken from the measure of the royal arm.

A sort of concordat was entered into between the king and the Pope Pascal II. The right of nominating bishops and abbots to the temporalities of their appointments was to be with the king; but the authority of the pope was to be recognised by the spiritual investiture by the ring and crosier.

The Court of Exchequer was established, and justices in eyre were to administer the laws by county assizes in circuit, though as yet their visits were only septennial, and the laws were administered in that Norman French which was the language of the court and the nobility.

During the reign of Henry I., Geoffrey of Monmouth published his History of Britain. It was a romance as much as a history, and to it we are principally indebted for the marvellous tales of King Arthur and his knights, and the prophecies of the Bard and Seer Merlin.

The Flemings, who at this time were the principal woolstaplers and manufacturers of Europe, established a colony for woollen stuffs at Worsted, near Norwich, which gave its name to fabrics still so called.

Henry died at St. Denis in Normandy, in a singular way. He whose superior education had gained for him the surname of Beauclerk, died of a gross surfeit of lampreys. His body was embalmed and brought for interment to the abbey which he had founded at Reading.

Henry signalized himself as a translator of the Fables of Æsop. He had been all through life usurious and exact-

ing, and he died possessed of a sum equal to three millions of our present money.

MAIN POINTS.

Henry's promptitude and coronation. Character of his first marriage. First appearance of a Council of Barons, and disappearance of the Witenagemot. Second marriage. His family by Matilda. Marriages of his daughter Matilda. Defeat, capture, and treatment of Robert. Agreement between the brothers. Appearance on the stage of Edgar Atheling. War with France. Usurious character of the king. Loss of his son William. Concordat with Rome. Social improvements. King's death and burial. *Æsop's Fables* translated by him.

CHAPTER VIII.

STEPHEN. A.D. 1135—A.D. 1154.

ADELA, daughter of William the Conqueror, had been married to Stephen, Count of Blois, by whom she had several sons. Of these, the two youngest, Stephen and Henry, had been invited to England by their maternal uncle, King Henry I. Henry was made Bishop of Winchester, Stephen was married to Matilda, daughter of Eustace, Count of Boulogne, by whom he acquired large estates, both in France and England.

But on the death of the king, such considerations of gratitude did not prevent Stephen from taking the most vigorous and prompt measures to place himself upon the throne, to the prejudice of the king's daughter, Matilda.

He was sufficiently popular to find himself saluted by the people of London, whither he came from the continent without loss of time. It was alleged, though upon what authority does not appear, that before his death Henry had expressed his wish to transfer the title to the crown from Matilda to Stephen. The Archbishop of Canterbury believed, or at least professed to believe this, and solemnly crowned Stephen king of England. The election was ratified by a bull from Rome, and further fortified by a body of Flemish mercenaries, whom the new king intro-

duced into his service. The barons gave their support to Stephen, but upon conditions most advantageous to themselves; especially they stipulated for the right of building and fortifying castles. No less than 126 of such castles were added in the present reign to those already existing; nor could any more effective measure have been adopted for weakening the kingly power than this establishment of baronial strongholds throughout the land as independent points of refuge and attack. The Norman barons, following the example of the English, deserted the cause of Matilda.

An insurrection was set on foot by Robert, Earl of Gloucester, a natural son of Henry I., on the ground that Stephen had violated his engagements to himself, while he himself retired beyond the sea.

The northern counties were invaded and ravaged by David, King of Scotland, uncle of Matilda; but the barons of the North flew to arms, and at Northallerton, in Yorkshire, David was defeated in an engagement, which from a tall crucifix carried by the English in a waggon as their ensign, was called "The Battle of the Standard." It would have been well if Stephen had contented himself with this advantage; but he determined to attempt the diminution of the power of the nobility, by dismantling some of their castles. He began with the Bishops of Salisbury and Lincoln, whose cause was espoused by Henry of Blois, the king's brother and Bishop of Winchester. As pope's legate, he convened a council at Westminster, condemned Stephen of sacrilege, and secretly encouraged Matilda to come to England. She arrived with a small retinue, at the head of which was the Earl of Gloucester. The Queen Dowager Adela received her at Arundel Castle, and a furious civil war ensued.

The condition of England at this time was one of universal anarchy. "The nobles and bishops," says a Saxon chronicler, "built castles and filled them with devilish and wicked men, and oppressed the people cruelly, torturing men for their money. They imposed taxes upon towns, and when they had exhausted them of everything set them on fire. You might travel a day and not find one

man living in a town, nor any land in cultivation. Never did the country suffer greater evils. If two or three men were seen riding up to a town all the inhabitants left it, taking them for plunderers. And this lasted, growing worse and worse, throughout Stephen's reign. Men said openly that Christ and the saints were asleep."

It was not long before Stephen himself was captured by the Earl of Gloucester, near Lincoln, and conveyed to Gloucester, where he was thrown into prison and loaded with irons. The legate, in a council at Winchester, proclaimed Matilda.

But Matilda was unfit for her situation. Perhaps hardly any woman would have been fit for it; but Matilda to a woman's weakness superadded a woman's imperiousness. Stephen's wife petitioned for his liberty, on promise of his retirement to a convent. The legate asked the patrimony of Boulogne for Prince Eustace, his nephew. The Londoners petitioned for the laws of King Edward the Confessor. Matilda returned a haughty refusal to all.

The prelate instigated a revolt, and Matilda was besieged in Winchester. She escaped and retired to Normandy; but Earl Robert of Gloucester fell into the hands of the legate's party. An opportunity was thus afforded for an exchange of prisoners, and Stephen was released, on which the civil war was renewed with increased violence.

In 1148, Matilda's martial son, Prince Henry, afterwards Henry II., took up his abode in Scotland, where his valour and high qualities raised his reputation among his party. He returned to Normandy, and was, with his mother's consent, invested with that duchy; and his father Geoffrey dying in 1157, he became lord also of Anjou and Maine. To these he added Guienne, Poitou, and other provinces of the south of France, by marrying Eleanor, daughter of William, Duke of Guienne and Poitou, who had been married to, and subsequently divorced from, Louis VII. of France.

Henry was now strong enough to invade England, and had already gained some advantage over the partisans of Stephen at Malmesbury, when a negotiation was instituted by the nobles on each side, for the purpose of preventing

further bloodshed. It was agreed that Stephen should reign unmolested, and that on his demise the crown should devolve on Henry. The barons did homage to the future heir; and the death of Stephen, which happened in the following year, prevented the troubles which in course of time must inevitably have accrued from so precarious a position of affairs.

On reviewing the period of Stephen's reign, we cannot but regard it as one of the most distressing to the nation. Yet these miseries can hardly be traced to any evil character or want of ability in the king himself. The worst that can be laid to his charge is that he did not regard himself as bound by his oath to Matilda, to whom, before the death of the late king, he had sworn fealty.

It is remarkable that during a reign of especial confusion, distracted from first to last by civil war, the principles of law were more and more established, recognised, and brought to bear upon the practical administration of justice for the benefit of the people. The study of law began now to be systematically promoted. For this purpose lectures were instituted at Oxford in the canon and the civil law—the former being the law of the Church, the latter that body of laws which had been received by the Saxons and Normans from the Roman empire, and which constituted the law of the land, except so far as it was modified, first, by ancient customs, called unwritten or common law, and secondly, (in the progress of time,) by statute laws or specific Acts of Parliament, after the development of the legislative body in the constitution.

The reign of Stephen brings the Norman dynasty to a close. The stirring and unsettled character of the times was not favourable to literature, which consisted mainly of history, with the exception of romances, and was written by monks in the quiet of their monasteries. It was the policy of the Normans to obliterate as far as possible the customs and language of the conquered Saxon race, and to substitute the Norman-French. The language of the Church and of learning was Latin, while the language of the Court was French. The studies of the universities consisted of the trivium and quadrivium—the former the three

sciences of grammar, logic, and rhetoric; the latter super-added arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music, thus raising the sciences to seven, a number to which, from ancient Jewish tradition, a mystical value was attached. Medicine was studied as an additional science having a plain practical value. Among the chief literati of the Norman period may be mentioned the celebrated Abbot Ingulphus of Croyland, who at the age of twenty was engaged as secretary to the Conqueror. He wrote a history which, though ostensibly a history of the foundation of Croyland, embodied the annals of the kingdom. As theological writers may be mentioned the Archbishops Lanfranc and Anselm; while Eadmer bequeathed a history of England from the year of the conquest to 1122. The best known writer of this period however was William, a monk and librarian of the Abbey of Malmesbury in Wiltshire, who wrote a History of England in five books, comprising the interval between 449 and 1143, besides a history of the Church. He wrote in Latin. The Church was the patron of the fine arts, which were chiefly dedicated to religion; while the turbulent character of the times impressed itself upon the style of the Norman castles and churches, which were exhibitions of massive beauty.

MAIN POINTS.

Genealogy of Stephen. His marriage. His relation to Matilda. Inducement to his coronation in preference to her. Pope's support. Flemish mercenaries. Policy of the barons. Scottish invasions. "Battle of the Standard." King's proceedings against the baronial castles. Part taken by Henry of Blois and the Pope. Matilda's arrival. State of England during this reign. Imprisonment of the king. Matilda's unpopularity. Opportunity for king's release. Vast acquisition of territory by Matilda's son Henry. Queen Eleanor's two marriages. Death of Stephen. His character. Advancement of the study of the law. Remarks on the Norman period of literature.

CHAPTER IX

PLANTAGENET LINE. A.D. 1154—A.D. 1399.

HENRY II. A.D. 1154—A.D. 1189.

HENRY II. surnamed Curt- or Short-mantle, was the eldest son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou, and Matilda, the relict of the Emperor Henry V. of Germany, who afterwards was married to Geoffrey. He was born at Mans in Normandy, in 1133, and three times crowned King of England, at Westminster, Lincoln, and Worcester. He reigned 35 years, till the year 1189.

He married Eleanor, the divorced queen of Louis VII. of France.

His issue was William, who died an infant; Henry, who married Margaret, daughter of Louis, from whom her mother had been divorced, and who died before his father; Geoffrey, who was accidentally killed at a tournament in Paris; Richard and John, who became successively kings of England; Maud, who marrying Henry Duke of Saxony became ancestress of the Hanoverian family of England; Eleanor, who married the King of Spain; and Joan, who became the wife of the King of Sicily.

The family owed its name of Plantagenet to the custom of Geoffrey, who in the crusades wore as the cognizance on his helmet a sprig of the broom plant, *Planta genista*. The possessions of this king were, as we have seen, far more extensive than those of any of his predecessors. Through his father, his mother, and his wife, he inherited provinces which amounted to more than a third of the monarchy of France. On the death of his brother Geoffrey he assumed the county of Nantes also, having disarmed the jealousy of the French king, Louis, by affiancing the young Henry, heir to the English Crown, then five years old, to the Princess Margaret of France, then in her cradle.

In judging of Henry's character and his reign, as one of the most important of early English history, we ought to bear in mind the terrible disturbances which had uniformly

prevailed through the reign of his predecessor Stephen, and the difficulties with which he had to contend,—difficulties which might have been insuperable to one possessed of less energy and sagacity as a warrior, a legislator, and a ruler. The first acts of his reign were directed to the remedy of these national ills. The mercenary troops whom Stephen had introduced from Flanders, whose licence was a perpetual cause of disorder, he at once dismissed. He repaired the coin which in his predecessor's reign had been much debased, and he endeavoured by a stricter administration of justice to diminish the sum of rapine and outrage which prevailed. Stephen, as already noticed, had been compelled to encourage the growing power of the nobles. The castles which they had built it was the king's policy to demolish ; and if his character has been handed down as proud and vindictive, we can at least understand that he was called upon to assert his position with a high hand, if the kingly prerogative was not to sink lower and lower in subserviency to a dominant nobility and church. His efforts against the former were directed to preventing their erection of themselves and their castles into petty yet independent sovereignties ; while with regard to the latter, his mind was harassed with the adjustment of what in a Roman Catholic country must always, even in times of more advanced civilization, be a difficult problem, namely, the prevention of such an amount of independence in his ecclesiastical subjects as should remove them from the authority of courts of secular jurisdiction.

It is clear that Henry had learnt a more liberal policy than prevailed during the Norman kings. Unlike his predecessors, who filled all high offices in Church and State with Normans, he elevated to the rank of Chancellor of England and Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas à Becket, son of Gilbert à Becket, citizen of London, a man of high attainments and resolute will, and withal an Englishman by birth. Yet his patronage by Henry in no way mitigated the sentiments or affected the policy of Becket. With him the king's desire to bring the clergy in any degree under the legal control of their lay fellow-

subjects was a royal invasion of the just privileges and liberties of their order. Yet Becket was not at first that determined opponent of the king which he afterwards became.

Henry summoned a Council or Parliament of nobles and prelates to Clarendon in Wiltshire. Here were passed 16 Articles called "Constitutions," by which stringent reformations were made in the condition of the clergy, their peculiar rights abridged, and the approval of the king made necessary as a sanction to the higher appointments in the Church. The payment of Peter's Pence and direct appeals to the Court of Rome were prohibited, above all, clerical offenders were brought under the jurisdiction of the secular courts. At the same time was passed the "Assize of Clarendon," which must be distinguished from the "Constitutions," a code of rules relating to civil matters which was not confirmed till 1176. And to these Constitutions Becket swore conformity. Yet at a Court held at Northampton he was condemned for his opposition to them, and from this point a change came over the spirit of his character.

He left the kingdom and was received with open arms both by the King of France and the pope. Nor could the king's persuasions prevail with him to return. He carried on his negotiations for six years from abroad, and a conference was held between Henry and Becket at Touraine. Here a compromise was effected, and the prelate returned to his country and his see in a sort of triumph, with a gorgeous retinue, and hailed by the acclamations of the people. But he had not been long in England when a hasty expression of the king, who was at this time in France, was construed to signify that he should feel favoured by any who would undertake Becket's assassination. This took place in 1170, when the archbishop was murdered by four armed knights in the chapel of St. Benedict and within the walls of Canterbury Cathedral. The four gentlemen of the king's household who undertook to rid the king of the turbulence of the haughty primate, were Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito or the

Briton. By different roads they met at Saltwood near Canterbury, and repaired to the palace of the primate, and there threatened him with unexplained menaces if he refused to restore the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of London and Salisbury, whom he had excommunicated, and procured the pope's sanction for the excommunication. Their offence lay in acceding to the king's request to crown Prince Henry as his associate in the sovereignty. The attendant monks, alarmed, hurried the archbishop into the cathedral, where vespers had commenced. The knights retired to arm, and the monks would have fastened the church door against them; this the archbishop forbade. On descending the steps of the chapel into the transept, he was confronted by Fitz-Urse, who cried out "Where is the traitor, where is the archbishop?" The cry was repeated, and Becket answered, "Here, Reginald, am I, no traitor, but the archbishop and priest of God. What would you have?" So answering he passed on, and stationed himself so as to have a pillar of the church on his left, and the wall of the chapel on his right. On refusing to revoke the excommunication, the assassins endeavoured to drag him out of the consecrated precincts; but the archbishop resisted, and hurled Tracy upon the pavement. Then Fitz-Urse approached and with his sword struck off his cap. Tracy now rose and struck a hard blow, which was partly intercepted by the monk Grim, who had his arm round Becket; the blow grazed the crown of his head and fell on his left shoulder, cutting the robes and the skin. The next blow, by whom struck does not appear, was with the flat of the sword, again upon the head. Becket, as if stunned, clasped his hands over the bleeding head, and when he saw the blood upon the sleeve which had come from the cheek, he said, "Into thy hands, O Lord, I commend my spirit." Another blow from Tracy brought him upon his knees, when he murmured, "I consent to die for the name of Jesus and the defence of the Church." He fell flat upon his face, and then a tremendous blow from Richard Brito broke the skull. A cowardly sub-deacon named Hugh, taking a sword from one of the assassins pierced the broken skull, and bespattered the

pavement with the blood and brains. Such was the manner of the death of Becket, on the 29th December, 1170, a day which was afterwards recorded in the calendar of the Church as the anniversary of the martyrdom of St. Thomas of Canterbury.

In public estimation Becket became a martyr, and partly from a feeling of remorse, partly, also, from the necessity of manifesting the most unmistakeable sympathy with the regret and indignation of the people, Henry showed every external sign of sorrow for what had occurred. For three miles' distance the king walked barefoot to the spot of the murder, and there received upon his royal shoulders strokes from the knotted scourges of the monks of St. Augustine. Another visit was paid by Henry to the tomb of Becket seven years later. The awful character of the deed, the sanctity of the person of the martyr, and the place of his martyrdom, the public humiliation and penance of the king seemed to exalt in popular estimation, not only the memory of Becket, but what was of greater practical moment to the priesthood, the sanctity of his burial place, and the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, as he was called after his canonization by the pope. As many as 100,000 pilgrims at a time were known to have resorted to it, and sundry miracles were wrought by the influence of the saint's remains.

42,000 silver marks and 500 of gold were given by the king as atonement money for the murder of Becket, to be expended in promoting the Crusades.

On such an event as the death of Becket many opinions must be expected to prevail; yet in judging of human character, conduct, and motives, the mixed and chequered nature of everything wrought by human means ought surely never to be lost sight of. On the one hand the position of the king was one of extreme difficulty. The kingly prerogative was a matter of faith as in after times, when in spite of his error on this point, the title of martyr was granted to a king whose reign was one short-sighted struggle against the rights of his subjects. The rights of the clerical order were also believed by the clergy to be divine, according to their own sense and definition of the

term. Personal pride and obstinacy and coarseness of character were in Becket blended with a conscientious feeling that the cause of the Church was in every way the cause of truth. It was an age of coarse strength and struggle, and the study of it may surely raise in our own minds a feeling of gratitude to Divine Providence, that the days of violent personal struggles are at an end in matters both of politics and religion, days when individual men—expoundents of those principles which are now nationally adjusted—bore the brunt of contests of which we, in peace, are reaping the issues, having entered into their labours.

The life and history of Thomas à Becket were such as the character of the times, the relation of the Church to the Crown, and the devotedness of the individual to the cause of the Church, in which his talent, energy, and tact had raised him to the highest place, naturally tended to produce. He was born of good parentage in the city of London, and by his natural qualifications soon acquired the esteem of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, whose patronage enabled him to make a journey to Bologna in Italy, where he resided in the university, in order to study the civil and canon law. He seems to have turned his residence and studies to the best account, for, on his return, Theobald appointed him to the Archdeaconry of Canterbury, and even employed him to negotiate certain matters with the Court of the Pope at Rome. He was also appointed tutor to the young Prince Henry. From this time his pride, his power, and his wealth rapidly increased. His palace was crowded with nobles, for whom daily green rushes were spread on the floor for want of sitting room. His retinue was pompous, his furniture massive and splendid, his table loaded with luxurious viands, his presents to those whom he preferred or desired to conciliate were large and sumptuous. The king himself was frequently his guest. But he determined on his appointment to the See of Canterbury to live for the Church alone. The office of the chancellorship, to which he had been formerly appointed, he resigned; henceforth if his court was princely, his manners were ascetic in the extreme: he fasted, scourged himself, kept nightly vigil in prayer and

meditation, and under the rich archiepiscopal vestments wore a shirt of sackcloth, which he changed so seldom that it was filled with vermin. The history of Becket was one often reflected, though not on so high a stage, by the influential ecclesiastics of the day.

The same year which was memorable for the murder of Becket, witnessed the association of his son, on the part of the king, in the duties and dignity of government. Prince Henry was crowned at Westminster in 1170, and two years afterwards the ceremony was repeated—his wife being crowned with him. In 1176 the two kings went on a tour throughout the kingdom, promising to all the administration of justice. This promise was admirably fulfilled in the division of England, during the present reign, into six circuits, and the appointment of three judges to preside in each circuit, the Court of King's Bench being established in London; the consequences were of the utmost political importance, and tended to promote what we have already noted as a policy of the first Plantagenet—the equalization of the liberties of his English and Norman subjects. These liberties were further promoted by the tax called scutage, from the Latin scutum, a shield, which allowed vassals to commute with money payments their attendance in the field.

The year of the second coronation of the prince was also the year of the invasion and conquest of Ireland. Two of the great Irish princes had quarrelled, and one had carried off the wife of the other. The interference of Henry was requested, and Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, sent to invade the country. It cannot be said this event was at the time fraught with consequences of great importance. The island was, however, annexed to the Crown of England and governed by a viceroy, who was dependent on the native nobility, and not made immediately responsible to the English crown till the time of Elizabeth.

Other wars were entered upon by the king. He reduced the Welsh to pay tribute; subdued the rebellions of his son, fomented by the King of France; and gained an ascendancy over Scotland, and William I. named the Lion of Scotland, who had invaded Northumberland, but was

taken prisoner at Alnwick, and was compelled to acknowledge the English king as lord paramount on the very day of the humiliation and penance of Henry at Canterbury.

Henry's end was a sad one. He had gone to Normandy to counteract the seditious movements of his own children, and there died in domestic grief in 1189 in the Church of Chinon. He was buried at Fontevraud.

Of his sons, John had been sent over to Ireland to complete the conquest of the country, but his want of self-control so alienated the friendly chiefs of the island that his father was compelled to recall him; Richard and Geoffrey warred against each other, and after their reconciliation the latter took up arms against his father, but was accidentally killed at a tournament in Paris. A similar attempt upon Henry's Norman dominions was made by his son Richard, aided by the King of France, in which he met with great reverses. He fell sick and bitterly cursed his children; a curse which nothing could prevail upon him to withdraw. His natural son Geoffrey alone attended the corpse to the Abbey Church of Fontevraud. Geoffrey and William, of whom the former became Archbishop of York, were Henry's children by "the fair Rosamond," whose family name was Clifford, and her father a noble of the county of Hereford.

The story of the death of "the fair Rosamond," whom Henry confined in the labyrinth of Woodstock, where she was discovered by the Queen Eleanor by means of a clue of thread, and compelled to drink poison at the point of the sword, is a pretty romance of subsequent invention, not to be regarded as authentic history.

MAIN POINTS.

Birthplace and genealogy of Henry II. Triple coronation. Marriage. Extensive possessions. State of the kingdom. His first acts. His relation to the nobility and the Church. Thomas à Becket. Constitutions and Assize of Clarendon. Martyrdom of Becket. Penance of the king. Association of Prince Henry in the sovereignty. Progress of justice. Conquest of Ireland. Wars with Wales and Scotland. Death and burial of the king. Legend of Fair Rosamond.

CHAPTER X.

RICHARD I. A.D. 1189—A.D. 1199.

RICHARD I., surnamed *Cœur de Lion*, from his signal bravery, was the eldest surviving son of Henry, and was born at Oxford in 1157. He was, therefore, thirty-two years of age when he came to the throne of England. He married in the Isle of Cyprus, Berengaria, daughter of Sanchez, King of Navarre, of whom he had become enamoured at Guienne. He had no children, and his wife was never in England.

For several years before the death of Henry II. opened his way to the English throne, he had possessed, by inheritance from his mother, Eleanor, the Duchy of Aquitaine and the Earldom of Poitou. He had not only a brave heart for his enemies, but a warm one for his friends and kindred. His grief at his father's death was sincere, and he retained Henry's counsellors about his own person. His mother he released at once from the confinement to which she had been long consigned by Henry; while his affection to his brother John was shown by profuse donations of land and other presents, which were ill requited on John's part.

Out of the ten years of Richard's reign, only four months were spent in England. His bent was not government, but war and adventure, by which, rather than by any strong feeling of religion, he was actuated in his efforts to rescue Jerusalem from the hands of the Saracen infidels.

He was a fine specimen of the knight of the day—handsome, of a fair countenance, with auburn hair and blue eyes; chivalrous, daring, haughty; a lover of poetry of that romantic sort which belonged to the age in which he lived, skilled in its simple music; and, above all, impressed with the idea that the relief of the holy city from the presence of the infidel was the sole purpose of his reign and his life. The king was crowned in London, and the very day of his coronation gave presage of the character of his reign.

In his horror of infidels the king had prohibited the presence of Jews on the occasion. Presuming on the rich presents they had brought, some Jews approached the dining hall of the king; they were roughly treated by the bystanders, and a rumour spread through the crowd that Richard had ordered a massacre of the Jews. All who were caught were put to death, and their houses in London pillaged. Other towns followed the example, and in York five hundred Jews, who had taken refuge in the castle, which they were unable to defend, destroyed their wives and children, set fire to their houses, and perished.

Richard's main object was now to raise money for his crusade, the purpose to which he was ready to sacrifice every interest of his kingdom. The vassalage of Scotland, which his father had extorted from William the Lion, he parted with for the inadequate sum of ten thousand marks, with the border fortresses of Berwick and Roxburgh. The Crown Revenues, Patronage, and Estates he sold to the highest bidder, and laid heavy taxes upon the people. Henceforth his life was one of adventure abroad, while his kingdom fell into the worst possible disorder at home.

The Bishops of Durham and Ely administered its affairs as well as they could, while robbery and violence desolated its borders. Meanwhile, Richard had started for France, had reached Vezelay, in Burgundy, where he had engaged to meet the French king, and found that their united armies amounted to one hundred thousand men.

After mutual promises of friendship and regard they separated; Philip, the French king, taking the road to Genoa, and Richard to Marseilles; at Messina they both put in from stress of weather, and here Richard was joined by Berengaria. Again tempestuous weather drove the squadron of Berengaria and her suite into Cyprus, where they met with little or no hospitality. Richard landed on the island, deposed Isaac, the governor, and established distinct governors of his own; espoused Berengaria, and immediately afterwards set sail for Palestine.

Philip and Richard signalized themselves greatly in the crusade. Acre, which for two years had defied its besiegers, surrendered. Philip became jealous of Richard's

reputation and influence, and returned to France. Richard, nothing daunted, fought his way in eleven days from Acre to Ascalon, and had even come within sight of Jerusalem, when the desire to return home became so strong in his army, that he was compelled to yield to it, and to secure his conquests by a treaty and truce with Saladin, who promised, in addition, that the pilgrims to Jerusalem should be unmolested.

Richard now started on his return to England, where the intrigues of his brother John demanded his presence. Fearing the jealousy of Philip, he resolved to return through Austria. He was shipwrecked at Aquileia, in the Adriatic, and found his way to Vienna in the disguise of a pilgrim. Here he was discovered and arrested by order of Leopold, Duke of Austria, who had served under Richard in the Holy Land, and had taken offence against his commander. The Emperor, Henry VI., required the surrender of the captive, and imprisoned him in the castle of Diernstein, in the Tyrol.

Nothing could have been more disgraceful to the character of the emperor than his meanness and rapacity on this occasion. He gave news to Philip of France of the arrest of Richard, so that the French king invaded his Norman dominions, but without success.

John, presuming on his brother's defenceless state, plotted, but with no better success, for the crown. Richard was summoned by the emperor before the Diet at Worms, where his speech, character, and bearing, enlisted the sympathy of all, who exclaimed against the conduct of the emperor, whom the pope also threatened with excommunication.

The emperor exacted 300,000*l.* of our money for Richard's ransom, of which two-thirds were to be paid before his release, and hostages left for the remainder. Yet, after his release, the emperor sent again to detain him. Richard had made his way to Antwerp, and was on the sea when the emperor's messengers reached that city.

The news of Richard's return to England was a sad disappointment to Philip. "The devil," said he, "has broken loose." His own nobles received him with acclamations,

and vowed all help against the conspiracies of his brother John.

To this period of Richard's life and adventures belongs the interesting and elegant romance, for we may not regard it as more than a romance, which had its origin in France in the thirteenth century, of the "discovery" of the king's place of confinement. The royal crusader had been thrust into a loathsome dungeon, where it was the intention of his enemy that he should waste the remainder of his life; but, shipwrecked with him on the Adriatic coast had been one Blondel, a knight and troubadour, faithfully attached to his master, but whom accident had separated from him. Blondel travelled through the cities of Austria in the garb of a minstrel, and under the walls of all the castles he sang a stave of a melody which he and the king had jointly composed. Almost despairing, he chanced to arrive beneath the gloomy walls of Tenebreuse, and scarcely had he sang the first verse, when, to his unspeakable joy, he was answered by the voice of his beloved king. He repaired in all haste to the Queen mother, who lost no time in taking the necessary steps for the release of her son.

But it was not in Richard's nature to seat himself quietly upon his throne and turn his attention to affairs of State. He accordingly left England as speedily as possible for Normandy, desiring to retaliate upon Philip for his many injuries and indignities toward himself. Yet this war seems to have been of a desultory kind, consisting in sieges and skirmishes which produced no definite result. It was during one of these sieges that Richard met his death. Yet, curious to say, the castle was one belonging to a vassal of his own, Vidomar, Viscount of Limoges, and lord of the fortress of Chalus, who had discovered a treasure which he had refused to surrender to the king's demand.

The castle was taken, and the garrison hanged, with the exception of Bertrand de Gourdon, an archer, who had wounded the king in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound might not have proved fatal but for the unskilfulness of the surgeon; but a gangrene ensued, and Richard sent for the author of his death. "Wretch!" said he, "what have I ever done to lead you to seek my life?"

“ Done ! ” replied the archer, “ you have slain with your own hands my father and my two brothers, and you are keeping me to be hanged. Do your worst upon me. I will bear all, and be happy in having rid the world of such a pest.”

Richard, at once chivalrous and penitent at the approach of death, ordered Bertrand’s release, and a gratuity to be given him ; but, contrary to his orders, the archer was flayed alive and hanged.

MAIN POINTS.

Richard’s birthplace and marriage. Foreign possessions. Bent of his character. Significant disaster at his coronation. Means raised for joining the Crusade. State of the kingdom. Alliance with France. Expedition to Palestine. Misfortunes on his return. Ransom. War with France. Manner of his death. Story of the archer.

CHAPTER XI.

JOHN. A.D. 1199—A.D. 1216.

JOHN succeeded his elder brother Richard, by whom he had been named as his successor to the kingdom, under the surname of Sans Terre in Norman, or Lackland in Saxon, being the fifth and youngest son of Henry II. He was born at Oxford in 1166, just a hundred years after the Norman Conquest, was crowned at Westminster, and reigned from 1199 to 1216.

The name of Lackland was attributed to John as having no share in those possessions of the Crown with which his brother had been largely endowed. His government of Ireland he lost through his own incapacity. His reign is most important as marking a period when the Saxon and Norman races, being fused together, were able to make a stand conjointly against the king on behalf of the national liberties. Before the thirteenth century had passed away the difference of costume in the two people, a difference which in that period of history was most significant, had

entirely disappeared ; and in the reign of John, the Saxon and Norman tongues were merged in the English language.

John was married three times, but had issue only by his last wife—this was Isabella, daughter of Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, whom he carried off from her husband, the Count de la Marche, his own wife being still alive.

His family consisted of Henry, who succeeded him under the title of Henry III. ; Jane, who married Alexander II., King of Scotland ; Eleanor, wife of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester ; Isabella, who married the German Emperor Frederick II. ; and Richard, elected King of the Romans.

John's first care on coming to the throne of England was to remove Arthur, the elder son of his brother Geoffrey. The cause of Arthur, Duke of Brittany, had been espoused by the French nobles, and by the King, Philip of France, who desired only an opportunity to invade, and if possible to dismember John's Norman dominions. But a treaty was made between the two kings in 1200. Three years afterwards, the young Duke of Brittany fell into his uncle's hands. In a sudden attack, while they were besieging the castle of Mirabeau, John fell upon his nephew's camp and took him prisoner, together with the most powerful barons who had revolted under him, and returned in triumph to Normandy. He was accordingly murdered, it is believed, in the castle of Rouen, by John's own hand, and the king himself threw the body into the Seine. This done, he proceeded to take Eleanor, called the Damsel of Brittany, Arthur's sister, and imprisoned her in Bristol Castle, where she died.

These events soon led to a result of the greatest moment—this was nothing less than the total separation of Normandy from England. The States of Brittany carried their complaints to Philip, and demanded redress for the violence committed by John against their duke. Philip, as his liege lord, summoned John to appear before him on the charges of felony and parricide, and condemned him to forfeit all his estates and fiefs in France to himself. He at once invaded John's Norman dominions, while the English king was indulging himself in idle pastimes at Rouen in

company of his young wife. The surrender of Rouen itself involved the reunion of the whole of Normandy to the French Crown, which took place about three hundred years after the cession of it by Charles the Simple to Rollo as its first duke.

The great character of John's reign was Stephen Langton, an Englishman of high ability and learning, whom, when a cardinal at Rome, the pope made Archbishop of Canterbury, and to whom we owe the first division of the Bible into chapters and verses.

Though the appointment was arbitrary on the pope's part, it was fortunate so far as Langton's character was concerned. A controversy arose between the king and the pope on the matter of investitures, which ended in the pope's laying the kingdom under an interdict in 1208, and even threatening to transfer the crown to the son of the French king. The Papal crown was at this time worn by Innocent III., a man of the highest genius and of unbounded ambition. The king submitted, recalled the banished bishops and clergy, and did homage, at Swinfield, near Dover, to Pandulph, the pope's legate, for his crown, which was returned to him by Pandulph, after having been taken from him for five days. This dispute, which led to consequences most disastrous to the nation, arose out of the question of right to appoint archbishops, which was raised between the suffragan bishops and the monks of St. Augustine. John sided with the bishops, and went so far as to expel the monks from the convent at Canterbury. The dispute was referred to the pope, who, with consummate policy, exaggerating the right which was implied in the appeal, rejected both nominees, and on his own authority appointed Stephen Langton. John's refusal to recognise Langton was the occasion of the interdict, which was nothing less than a total suspension of all rites of religion, excepting only that of baptism. Yet good came out of this evil, for Langton, by the very circumstances of his appointment, was enabled to carry out the proceedings of Magna Charta with an independence which he could hardly have so well sustained if, like Becket, he had been the king's nominee in his high office.

The interdict took effect in 1208, and the conduct of John on the occasion, and for three years afterwards, proves that he was not destitute of energy and courage. So far from submission, John resisted the power, and even attacked the property and persons of the clergy, and persisted all the more strenuously in his course after the pope had passed sentence of excommunication against him in the following year. He so terrified the clergy, that they did not dare either to carry out the interdict or publish the excommunication. He drove some of his discontented barons out of the kingdom ; he marched northwards and received tribute and homage from the Scottish king ; reduced the turbulent English settlers in Ireland to obedience, and penetrating Wales as far as Snowdon, received the submission of the principal Welsh chief. The chroniclers of this period, who were bitterly the king's enemies, while they record, with too much probability, that John's proceedings were marked by the infliction of terrible cruelties, leave at the same time no doubt upon the minds of their readers as to his vigour and success in conducting them.

The name of the Earl of Pembroke appears as Langton's chief ally in framing the articles of Magna Charta, and enforcing them upon the king. This illustrious document (of which the original still exists in the British Museum) purported to be based upon the ancient laws of England—the laws of Alfred and Edward the Confessor. Its tenor was twofold—the mutual restriction of the claims of the pope and the king ; and secondly, the security of the general rights of freemen, according to the ancient laws of the realm.

The movement of the barons began at Stamford, thence they marched to Brackley, in Oxfordshire, at which place the court then resided. John sent the archbishop to ask the nature of their demands. They based their reply on the liberties granted by Edward the Confessor and Henry II. The king with impatience declared that nothing would induce him to yield compliance. The barons at once had recourse to arms. Under Robert Fitzwalter, "mareschal of the army of God and Holy Church," they besieged Northampton, reduced Bedford, and received the welcome of

the people of London. John, alarmed, proposed the arbitration of the pope in a commission of eight barons, four to be nominated by either side. The barons firmly refused, and the king yielded with a weakness which was the counterpart of his former obstinacy.

The great charter remained the foundation of the constitutional monarchy of England. It has been confirmed thirty-eight times—three times in the reign of Henry III., John's successor, the last of these confirmations giving to it the form in which it became permanently registered in the statute book of the kingdom. One clause only, the provision against taxation without consent of the council of the nation, was removed by Henry III., but re-affirmed by a special statute of the twenty-fifth year of Edward I. The barons were not content with wresting the king's signature to the charter, they took care to provide themselves with securities for the fulfilment of his promises. Twenty-five barons were appointed conservators of the public liberties, with power over all classes of the people. They took possession of London, while the fortress of the Tower was consigned to the Archbishop of Canterbury. Yet the king had no intention of adhering to his signature or his oath. He obtained a bull from Rome to annul the charter, and he enlisted an army of foreign mercenaries, with which he laid waste his own dominions. The barons, exasperated, offered the English crown to Louis, son of Philip of France, who landed at Sandwich, and having taken the town of Rochester, received the homage of the barons in London. It was during this war that the king met his death, as will presently be described.

In forming our estimate of this charter, it would be impossible to over-rate the bearing which it had on the liberties of the people of England, but it must not be supposed that these were realized at the time in any large sense of the term. English liberty was rather inaugurated than accomplished by *Magna Charta*. It was an instalment only of those future steps which led to the establishment of popular liberty. The persons who were immediately benefited by the charter, were not those whom we designate as the people. These were but serfs. It was

rather a concession on the part of the king in favour of the nobles, the clergy, and the great proprietors of the soil. The royal seal was affixed to the great charter at Runnymede, near Windsor, in the year 1215.

John granted also a charter to the clergy, giving them privileges of election subject to his own nominal *congé d'élections* and confirmation of their appointments. Civic privileges, too, were extended. The first annual election of a mayor and two sheriffs for the City of London took place in 1208. The first mayor, Henry Fitzstephen, held his office twenty-four years.

Two causes tended to make the Jews an object of popular dislike and persecution at this period. The one, their abettance of the Saracens and share of the name infidel with those whom Christian Europe was roused to exterminate by the crusades; the other, their wealth and usuriousness. John needed money for his civil war, and applied for a loan to a Jew of Bristol. On the Jew's refusal, the king ordered the extraction of a tooth a day. The process was repeated daily for a week, at the end of which the sum was paid.

But the war of the barons seemed to be on the eve of renewal, for John, who had signed stipulations, was not ready to act upon them, or to regard them in any other light than as extorted from himself by an abuse of the power of his subjects.

A second civil war was prepared, and the disaffected barons invited the aid of the French king, and, as we have said, offered the crown of England to Louis, Philip's eldest son. John determined to make an effort to retain his sovereignty, and at the head of a considerable army started from Lynn, and marched towards Lincolnshire with the intention of taking his stand at some central point in his dominions. The road, which lay at the head of the Wash, was liable to be flooded at high tide. In his effort to save himself and his army, the king lost his baggage, regalia, and the records of his kingdom. He escaped narrowly, and reached the Abbey of Swinstead, where fatigue and anxiety threw him into a violent fever. Next day, his illness having increased, he was carried in a litter first to Seaford Castle, and then

to Newark, where he made his will, and died at the age of fifty years, after a reign of seventeen years, leaving behind him a name branded with the reputation of obstinacy and irresoluteness, combined with cruelty, and the charge of fratricide.

He was interred in the cathedral of St. Wulstan, at Worcester, in which also lies the Saxon prelate whom alone William the Norman had allowed to remain undisturbed in his see.

MAIN POINTS.

John's coronation. Account of his name of *Sans Terre*. Fusion of Normans and Saxons. His marriages. His children. His conduct to his nephew and niece. Dismemberment of Normandy from England. John's quarrel with Rome. Stephen Langton. Cause of the Interdict. John's conduct upon it. *Magna Charta*—its tenor, ratifications, and application. Barons' security for King's observance of his oath. Bull from Rome annulling the Charter. Crown offered to Louis of France. Circumstances of the King's death and burial.

CHAPTER XII.

HENRY III. A.D. 1216—A.D. 1272.

JOHN was succeeded by Henry III., surnamed of Winchester, his eldest son, born in the year 1207. He was nine years a minor, during which period the Earl of Pembroke acted as Protector of the Kingdom, having been so appointed by a Council of the Barons at Bristol. His reign is conspicuous for its unusual duration of fifty-six years, from 1216 to 1272, and its singularly eventless character. He was crowned at Gloucester, with a fillet or hoop of gold, the crown having been lost in the late king's disastrous march.

We have already noticed the coronation and association to the sovereignty of Henry, the son of Henry II. It would seem, therefore, that the present king was, in truth, the fourth, and not the third of the name of Henry. He was married in 1236, at Canterbury, to Eleanor, daughter of Raymond, Earl of Provence, and had issue, Edward, who

succeeded him as the first of that name since the Conquest; Margaret, married to Alexander III., King of Scotland; Beatrice, the wife of John, Duke of Brittany; and others, who died young.

He died of the natural infirmities of age at Bury St. Edmunds, and was buried at Westminster Abbey.

Henry III. owed his peaceful accession to the throne to the fidelity of the Earl of Pembroke, who, having adhered to the late king in his troubles, was the supporter of his child after his death, though he had warmly supported the efforts of Stephen Langton.

The wars of Henry were with France and the barons of the realm. Louis, to whom the crown had been offered in the late reign, was defeated at Lincoln, and again by Hubert de Burgh, off the Kentish coast. A curious stratagem is recorded of this engagement. It is said that the English, gaining the windward side of the French, threw quicklime into their faces. A contest of four years was carried on for the recovery of the king's provinces in France, against the disappointed Louis, now Louis VIII. It was conducted by Richard, the king's brother, with no successful result.

But the great feature of this king's reign was the revolt of the barons under Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who had married the king's sister, Eleanor. The plea of the revolt was the king's partiality to foreigners, and the violation of his oaths in regard to the great charter, under their influence. It would appear that Henry's character was of that reliant sort which, distrustful of its own powers, has led kings to choose special counsellors or favourites, to the dissatisfaction of their people. Henry's favourites, however, were not mere companions of his vice or leisure. His first was the warlike De Burgh, who had saved his kingdom.

On his deposition, through fear of the people, his place was filled by Peter de Roches, Bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin by birth, through whose influence the dignified and lucrative appointments of the State were given away to foreigners. A reinforcement of these came over from Gascony with the king's mother, Isabella, who, after John's

death, had married the Count de la Marche. These untoward influences, added to the king's want of success in his continental expeditions, in which he had been worsted by Louis at Taillebourg, while he had defeated an invasion of his Lordship of Guienne by the King of Castile, his want of economy, and the consequent necessity for heavy taxation, alienated him more and more from his nobles, and civil war seemed inevitable.

The people suffered also very grievously during the king's reign from the interference and exactions of the Court of Rome. The chief dignities and emoluments of the Church were largely bestowed upon Italian priests, many of whom retained their incomes as absentees in Italy. The incomes of these Italian ecclesiastics amounted to sixty thousand marks a year. The pope demanded for himself the incomes of all benefices during vacancy, the twentieth part of the proceeds of all Church property throughout the realm, the third of such as exceeded one hundred marks a year, and the half of such as were in the hands of non-resident incumbents. He claimed the goods of all priests who should die intestate. He levied taxes upon the people under the name of benevolence, and if the king ventured to remonstrate, he was at once met with a threat of excommunication.

In 1255 the pope, as Vicar of Christ, pretended to dispose of the crown of Sicily, which he offered to Henry of England for his second son, Edmund. Edmund authorized the pope to proceed with the conquest of that country, and soon found an account laid against him by the pope for nearly one hundred and forty thousand marks. In vain did he apply to the barons of England for reimbursement. The pope, bent on rescuing Sicily from its king, Mainfroy, levied a tenth on all ecclesiastical incomes for three years.

Battles were fought between the king and his barons at Lewes, in Sussex, in 1264, and Evesham, in Worcestershire, in the following year. At the first the king, with his son and brothers Richard and Edward, were taken prisoners, but Henry himself escaped, and rallying his forces for the second battle, De Montfort was slain. It went hard, however, with Henry, who, his life being in extreme jeopardy,

saved it only by crying out to the soldier, who in the next moment would have despatched him, "I am Henry of Winchester, your king."

In the civil history of the kingdom some important events have to be recorded. In 1217 Magna Charta was confirmed, and in 1258 appeared the first rude outline of the House of Commons, which, in 1264, was developed into the delegation of two knights from every shire, to represent the people in Parliament, whom we now style county members, with one or two burgesses from each borough town, in addition to the barons and prelates, who formerly constituted the great council of the nation. It is hard to determine the question how far this movement in the direction of a more popular representation is to be accredited to the Earl of Leicester. In so far as it may have been so, we can hardly believe that De Montfort's views embraced any such development of it as subsequently took place, and which it is inconceivable that he could have foreseen. Yet, liberal and enlightened views may nevertheless have entered into a scheme, of which the origin lay in an attempt to strengthen the power of the nobles against the king, by giving places in the Council to men of property and influence below the rank of nobility.

The main efforts of Henry III. were directed to the raising of money, a matter which, even in the hands of the wisest and best of kings, must ever have been one of extreme difficulty and invidiousness before the principle was recognised and legally established that the people should tax themselves by their own representatives in Parliament.

For fifty years the nation suffered from the oppression and misunderstanding which the raising of money by the Sovereign, according to his own view of the requirements of the State, would of necessity produce.

In this reign remarkable advance was made in the departments of art, science, learning, and manufactures. Coal was licensed to be dug at Newcastle, instead of the wood fuel which before had been exclusively employed; the art of working in lead was extended; the Flemings introduced linen for garments, in addition to the woollen previously in use; the mariner's compass was obtained, it

is believed, from the Chinese: the first gold coin was struck in 1257, and the smaller copper coins in 1210; architecture exhibited itself in the sumptuous re-building of Westminster Abbey in that early pointed style of architecture which took precedence of the circular and more massive Norman: foreign merchants, during a monopoly of European trade by the cities of Northern Italy, settled in London, and gave its name to Lombard Street; the lectures of Grosseteste, afterwards Bishop of Lincoln, drew crowds to the University at Oxford: the name of Bracton appears as an expounder of the laws: Walter de Merton, with others, introduced the collegiate and tutorial systems of the university, as an advance upon the migratory and fluctuating attendance of the students of former times; and physical inquiry and science were almost founded in England by the friar, Roger Bacon, who merits to take rank, according to his generation, with the first promoters of modern discovery.

MAIN POINTS.

Length of the reign. Marriage and family of the King. Defeats and retirement of Louis. King's favourites. Causes of war with his barons. Exactions of the Pope. Battles of Lewes and Evesham. Confirmation of Magna Charta. First outline of a House of Commons. Simon de Montfort. Financial difficulties of a monarch of the period. Improvements in science, law, and education.

CHAPTER XIII.

EDWARD I. A.D. 1272—A.D. 1307.

EDWARD I., surnamed Longshanks, the eldest son of Henry III., was in Palestine at the time of his father's death. He inherited the crown as second son of the late king, his eldest brother Alfonso having died before him.

He had joined the sixth crusade, that of Louis of France, afterwards canonized as St. Louis of the Roman Calendar. It was there that, having been stabbed by an ~~assassin~~ with a poisoned arrow, his wife Eleanor, who ac-

companied him, sucked the poison from the wound. This devoted consort was a Spaniard, and daughter of Ferdinand III., King of Castile.

Edward was born at Winchester in 1237, crowned at Westminster in 1272, and reigned 35 years, till 1307.

He was twice married—first to Eleanor, by whom he had four sons, one of whom was Edward II., and eleven daughters; and secondly, to Margaret, sister to Philip III., King of France, whose children were Thomas, Edward, and Eleanor.

Although the heir to the throne was abroad when it became vacant, he found no opposition on his return. Indeed, he spent more than a year in Italy and France before he reached England, where he heard that the affairs of the realm were efficiently administered by a regency, consisting of Walter Giffard, Archbishop of York; the Earl of Cornwall, and the Earl of Gloucester. After arranging the affairs of the province of Guienne, and settling some commercial disputes with the Countess of Flanders, he landed at Dover in 1274, and proceeded forthwith to Westminster, where he was crowned by Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury. The earliest acts of this king's reign were directed to the improvement of the law and the more effective administration of justice. A commission was appointed to inquire, not only into the royal estates to preserve them from encroachment, but generally into the matter of escheats, forfeitures, and wardships. The commissioners might have carried these powers too far had not Earl Warrene, on being called upon to show the title to his estates, drawn his sword, and reminded the king that as he held them by the same title as William the Conqueror, so he would defend them in the same way. In 1279 passed the Statute of Mortmain, to prevent the Church, without the royal consent, receiving lands to be exempt from feudal service. As the clergy were dead in law, such estates were said to be in dead-holding (*mortua manu*).

It seemed as if internal dissensions kept the chief estates of the realm quiet. The clergy were dissatisfied with the pope for his heavy demands upon their revenues. Insur-

rections against the religious houses indicated discontent between the clergy and the people, while the barons had ceased mutual hostilities from very weariness.

The king's expedition to Wales seems to have been the result of this state of internal quiet, which in a warlike age induced the people to look abroad for matter of adventure. The Welsh, too, had made from time to time incursions upon the English territories—they belonged to a different race, of different laws, customs, and manners,—descendants of that ancient British people who had fled to the mountain-fastness of the west before the encroaching Saxons.

The Welsh Prince Llewellyn had taken an active part in the late reign as an adherent of Simon de Montfort. He had been betrothed to his daughter, who, however, was intercepted on her way to Wales, and detained in the English court. These circumstances increased Edward's jealousy, while the brothers of Llewellyn, David and Roderic, having been dispossessed of their inheritances by Llewellyn, were ready to aid the English invader.

Edward ordered Llewellyn to do homage for his territories—the Welsh prince refused, and Edward accepted the refusal as a pretence for invasion. He entered the heart of the country, and compelled the submission of Llewellyn, who accompanied Edward to Westminster, where he did homage for his kingdom. But tradition had handed down a prophecy of the ancient British seer Merlin, according to which Llewellyn was to restore some sovereignty of his ancestors over Britain. On the ground of this tradition Llewellyn, who had received his bride and returned to Wales, marched into Radnorshire, determined to hazard an open battle. They were surprised and defeated by Edward Mortimer. Llewellyn and his brother, Roderic, with 2000 Welshmen, fell fighting; and so in the year 1282 the independence of Wales was lost, while its princes became vassals of the English crown.

The younger brother, David, made but a faint show of resistance to the English arms. He was hunted from one fastness to another of his native hills, till he was betrayed and caught in disguise. He was by the king sent to

Shrewsbury to be tried by a court of English peers, and was condemned to be hanged, drawn, and quartered as a traitor. The conquest of Wales was now permanently concluded. English laws and courts of justice were established, and the king invested his second son Edward, who had been born at Caernarvon, with the Principality.

Soon afterwards Margaret, Queen of Scotland, died, and her death opened a dispute as to the right of succession to that kingdom, which was claimed by twelve candidates, but reduced to two—John Baliol and Robert Bruce. The question was referred to Edward for decision, and he claimed the crown for himself, nominating Baliol as his vassal.

Alexander III., King of Scotland, had died without male issue, or any descendant except Margaret, his granddaughter through his own daughter Margaret, who had married Eric, King of Norway. This granddaughter, Margaret, who went by the name of the Maid of Norway, had been acknowledged by Alexander as heiress to his kingdom. The policy of the English king was to unite his son Edward, Prince of Wales, to the Maid of Norway. The Scottish nobles had consented to the arrangement, when it was frustrated by Margaret's death. Of the competitors for the Crown, under this altered state of affairs, only three possessed any real claim. These were the three descendants of the three daughters of David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother of William II., King of Scotland, captured by Henry II. Baliol, Bruce, and Hastings, were respectively, the grandsons of Margaret, the son of Isabel, and the grandson of Ada. A furious civil war seemed probable, and the Scottish Parliament referred the matter to Edward's arbitration. He summoned the nation to meet him at Norham-on-the-Tweed, where he set up his own claim, to the indignation of the Scotch, to nominate the heir to the Crown of Scotland. Edward, with a great show of justice, appointed a commission of one hundred and four to report on the case to himself in the ensuing year, and proposed both to them and to the principal lawyers of Europe the question, whether in such cases of succession the descendant of the elder sister were preferable to the descendant of the younger if the latter were a degree nearer to the common stock. The

answer was unanimous, and Edward declared John Baliol Lord of Galloway and grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother of William I. of Scotland, surnamed the Lion, to be duly and lawfully appointed King of Scotland.

But Edward had no intention of remaining satisfied with the mere title of Lord Paramount. He took care that his vassal should feel his subjection; he was sent for from Scotland with vexatious frequency to give account of himself to the king. Resolved to rid himself of this treatment, Baliol revolted, and received the pope's absolution from his oath of homage. He also entered into an alliance with Philip IV. of France. But the Scots could not resist the king's power.

Edward again defeated their armies, and took Baliol prisoner, after a great battle at Dunbar. Edward returned, bringing with him the Scotch regalia and coronation stone. Baliol was imprisoned for two years in the Tower. He was afterwards allowed to retire into Normandy, where he died.

Whatever else may have accrued from these Scotch wars, one benefit certainly resulted from them. The king had been put to heavy expenses, and daily experience showed that there was little hope of money being raised, except in the way that had become constitutional—the taxation by Parliament or the representatives of the people, which now included not only the two knights of the shire, but also two deputies from every borough.

After Baliol's departure, an assertor of the liberties of his countrymen appeared in William Wallace, a Scotchman of noble birth, who had been chosen regent during Baliol's captivity. He is the champion of Scottish story. Of gigantic stature and strength, of ardent patriotism and chivalrous disposition, he was in every way formed for a popular leader. He raised a standard of revolt in Scotland, to which flocked such mixed material as forms the army of patriotic insurgents generally—the best and the worst of mankind. From a guerilla chief and an adventurous outlaw he raised himself to the rank of a general, recognised by his country, proving himself capable of over-

throwing the English forces, which had planted upon his beloved hills the footsteps of the invader. Edward, who was at this time in Flanders, heard with amazement the exploits of Wallace, and hastened homewards.

A war of three years had engaged Edward's attention in France. It began with a conflict between the sailors of the Cinque ports and some Norman ships, in which the former gained a complete victory. Philip of France summoned the English king to account for this outrage, in the capacity of vassal for his duchy of Guienne, and a quarrel ensued, which led to no important results. The king was compelled to lay heavy taxes upon England for the support of the war, and gladly accepted the mediation of the pope, Boniface VIII., which left him at leisure to return to attend to the affairs of Scotland.

He now lost no time in taking a large army with him into that country, and gained a victory over the Scotch at Falkirk, leaving upon the field slain to a number varying, in the uncertain reports of the occasion, from twelve to fifty thousand. Wallace, however, was still the idol of the people, and, in order to secure the adherence of the nobles, he resigned the regency, resolved to try his own fortune and that of Scotland in the capacity of a private servant of his country. He nominated Comyn as fit to take his place, who soon justified his appointment by a victory over the English forces at Roslin. Edward was not to be wearied out.

Again he took a considerable army into Scotland, laid waste the country, received the submission of the Scottish nobles, and demolished their castles. Wallace still survived, a solitary wanderer among the hills and streams of Lanark, lurking in secret till the time of revenge should come. But he was surrendered to the English by the treachery of Sir John Menteith, his friend, to whom he had made his haunts known, near the falls of the Clyde, and Edward sent him in chains to London, where he was hanged, drawn, and quartered.

Meanwhile, Robert Bruce, Baliol's competitor, had escaped from London, and reached Scotland in safety. He was crowned in the Abbey of Scone, by the Bishop of St.

Andrew's. A new army flocked to his standard, and Edward found himself compelled a third time to carry war into the country of the indomitable Scots. He summoned his Council and his army to Carlisle, and sent on before him Aymer de Valence, who gained a victory over Bruce at Methuen, in Perthshire; but the generous king was disarmed by the general submissiveness of the inhabitants, and forgot the vengeance which he had vowed. He soon afterwards died at Carlisle, of a dysentery, and was buried at Westminster. With his last breath he had enjoined that they would look upon his dead body as their general and leader, and desired that it should be carried at the head of the army till Scotland should be conquered.

A romantic, though completely authenticated story, belongs also to the death and burial of the Queen Eleanor. It was in 1291 that Edward was compelled to march with all speed to Scotland, whither he was to be followed by his queen. Passing through Lincolnshire, she was attacked with fever, and died near Grantham. Edward, on hearing of her illness, made all speed to reach her, but arrived too late to receive the last words of his beloved queen. He mourned her in silence, and would allow none to speak to him until the last offices had been paid to his consort. He followed the corpse during a journey of thirteen days. At the end of each day the dead queen was exposed in the square or principal street of the town where the halt was made, and each resting-place of her bier was marked by the erection of a sumptuous cross; those of Northampton and Waltham still remain. The last stage before reaching the Abbey of Westminster was Charing Cross, whose name of Charing, or *chère reine* (the dear queen), still survives to mark the incident and the spot.

Edward was the last king who took part in the crusades.

His reign was marked by many events of interest and importance—the completion of the Abbey of Westminster, and the bringing thither of the coronation chair of the Scottish kings; the appointment of his son by the king, to be the first Prince of Wales, whom he thus made a living monument of his subjugation of the Principality;

the total banishment of the Jews from England, who were not re-admitted till the time of the Commonwealth; the establishment of treaties of commerce with the Flemish and Portuguese; the appointment of the office of attorney-general and barristers under that name; the passing of the statute of Mortmain, to prevent lands from being devised to ecclesiastical bodies in such a way that the lands became exempt from feudal service by reason of the transfer; the institution of Convocation as a parliament of the clergy for self-taxation; the confirmation of Magna Charta, with the addition of a specific clause, that the people were not to be taxed without the consent of their representatives in Parliament; and generally such improvements in the laws as have gained for Edward I. the title of the English Justinian.

MAIN POINTS.

Relationship of the King to his predecessor. Double marriage and family. Regency of the kingdom. State of the kingdom. Expedition to Wales. Llewellyn and his brothers. Conquest of Wales. Scotch succession disputed. Edward's arbitration and interference. Nomination of John Baliol. Genealogy of claimants. Exploits and end of Wallace. Social improvements.

CHAPTER XIV.

EDWARD II. A.D. 1307—A.D. 1327.

EDWARD II., surnamed of Caernarvon, from the place of his birth, was born in 1284, and crowned at Westminster in 1307. He reigned twenty years.

He married at Boulogne, in the year after his coronation, Isabella, daughter of Philip IV. of France, to which monarch he had gone to do homage for his duchy of Guienne. He had by this marriage two sons and two daughters—Edward, who succeeded him; John, surnamed of Eltham, from his birthplace, who died young; Jane, married to David II. of Scotland, and Eleanor.

A cruel man was Edward II., without valour and without capacity.

The Scotch war was going on, and Edward II. under-

took to meet it. He marched into the country. The invasion was about as earnest as Caligula's attack on Britain. But if Edward was trifling with the question of the Scotch allegiance, Robert Bruce was resolute.

Edward was one of those kings who dealt in favourites—not like Henry III.'s men who, though they may have had the misfortune of royal patronage, were made of sterling material, like Hubert de Burgh and Peter de Roches, but weak creatures in whom the king's own friends could find nothing to recommend them beyond a possibly engaging exterior. The king's first favourite was Piers Gavestone, by birth a Gascon, and descended no doubt from one of those whom Isabella, the wife of John, had imported into England in the life time of her son.

Queen Isabella and the Earl of Lancaster resolved in concert to rid the country of the king's obnoxious minion. At their solicitation, the king banished him, but recalled him almost immediately. This was too great a provocation. The king escorted his friend to Scarborough, and himself went on to York. Gavestone was besieged by the Earl of Pembroke, and capitulated for two months' accommodation, till further terms should be agreed on between them. But Pembroke was bent on disposing of the royal favourite more effectually. He conveyed him to Deddington in Oxfordshire, where, by a seeming inadvertence, he left him with a scanty guard.

The Earl of Warwick attacked the castle, and with little difficulty gained possession of the favourite's person. A small council of nobles was held, who sentenced him to death, and at a place called Blacklow-hill Gavestone was beheaded.

This year witnessed the suppression of the Knights Templars, a military religious order, by a bull of the pope. The templars had at first consisted of a small and devoted band of nine brothren, who bound themselves by an oath to live in and near Jerusalem to protect those who came as pilgrims to the holy sepulchre. In the course of a century their numbers and wealth had enormously increased, and their influence caused much jealousy among the monarchs of Christendom. Being accused of immoral

practices, they were seized on one day, and their order abolished by the pope, their property being professedly transferred to the order of the Knights Hospitallers.

Meanwhile the Scotch were making every effort after independence, and the king taking the field, was signally routed by Bruce at Bannockburn, near Stirling. Yet so confident was he of victory that he had brought among the army of 100,000 men which he led into Scotland, Barton, a Carmelite friar, as his poet-laureate, to sing the victory which he purposed to achieve.

This disappointment, and the unpopularity the defeat occasioned, led the king to seek relief in the society of a new favourite, Hugh de Spenser. The lavish partiality of the king for this youth and his father, extending even to the arbitrary bestowal upon them of estates confiscated from his nobles, was a cause or pretext for open rebellion.

The Earls of Lancaster and Hereford headed the movement, and procured from Parliament a sentence against the favourites of perpetual banishment and the confiscation of their estates. The king led out an army in behalf of his friends, and gained a decisive victory at Boroughbridge. Lancaster, flying to Scotland, was seized by Sir Andrew Harcla, tried on the spot, and beheaded within sight of his own castle of Pomfret.

The following year witnessed the close of the Scottish war by a truce for thirteen years. Summoned to France to do homage for Guienne to the new king, Charles IV., he sent over his queen, Isabella, in his stead. And now he found a determined enemy in his own consort. The king's favour of the Spencers had so irritated her that she had left the kingdom. Her determination not to return till the young favourite should be sent out of England served to make her popular with the nobles, notwithstanding her disgraceful intimacy with a young noble of the name of Mortimer.

She left Holland with a small army of three thousand men, which she received from the Count of Holland and Hainault, to whose daughter Philippa she had betrothed her son, and landed in Suffolk, the English everywhere receiving her with favour, including the king's own brothers,

the Earls of Kent and Norfolk. The elder Spenser had been appointed to keep the castle of Bristol for the king; but the garrison mutinied and delivered him to the barons, who hanged him, cut his body to pieces, and sent his head to Winchester for public exhibition. The son, who had fled to Wales, was caught, and underwent similar treatment at Hereford. The king, who meditated a retreat in the same direction of his native principality, was seized and delivered to the queen's party, who imprisoned him in the Tower, after he had signed his abdication in Kenilworth Castle. Parliament deposed him on the grounds of indolence, incapacity, and partiality. He was to receive a pension, the young Prince Edward, now fourteen years of age, was to succeed him, and Isabella was to act as regent during the minority. The Earl of Lancaster, with the Lords Berkeley, Maltravers, and Gournay, were to take charge of him, each for a month at a time.

Personal hatred, which had shown itself in personal indignities to the king, and the fear of punishment in case of a revolution in his favour, suggested to the lords to despatch him. In a room in Berkeley Castle he was murdered by the Lords Gournay and Maltravers. A red-hot iron was thrust into his bowels in the hope of producing death without external signs of violence; but the cries of the king, and the subsequent confession of an accomplice, revealed the horrid tragedy. He was privately buried in the cathedral of Gloucester.

MAIN POINTS.

Marriage and family of the King. Robert Bruce. King's favourites. Suppression of the Order of Templars. Battle of Bannockburn. Battle of Boroughbridge. Invasion and regency of Isabella. Betrothal of Prince Edward. Abdication, imprisonment, and murder of the king.

CHAPTER XV.

EDWARD III. A.D. 1327—A.D. 1377.

EDWARD III., surnamed of Windsor, from his birthplace, was the eldest son of Edward II. He was born in 1311, crowned at Westminster in 1327. He was fifteen years old when his father was deposed, and reigned fifty years.

He married at York Philippa, daughter of William, Earl of Hainault, to whom he had been betrothed by his mother, Isabella.

The fruit of this marriage was Edward, called the Black Prince, from the favourite colour of his armour, (he married in 1361, Joan, Countess of Kent, who died 1376); William Thomas Lionel, Duke of Clarence (from whom sprang the house of York); John of Gaunt, or Ghent, in Flanders, his birthplace, who married a daughter of the Duke of Lancaster, and so became ancestor of the Lancastrian house; Blanche, and three younger children.

The Parliament which had raised Edward III. to the throne had appointed a regency of twelve privy councillors, under the Duke of Lancaster, Mortimer, the queen's paramour, preferring only to influence their councils, being formally enrolled in their number. This show of moderation was of little use to him. Finding that the sovereign authority was really exercised by Mortimer and the queen, Edward determined to rid himself of the obstruction. Mortimer and the queen were resident in the castle of Nottingham. Here they were apprehended by the co-operation of Sir William Bland the governor. Mortimer without trial was summarily hanged at Elms near London. The queen was confined to the castle of Risings with a pension, and lived in that confinement twenty-five years.

In the year after his accession, Edward found himself engaged in war with the Scotch. Bruce invaded Cumberland and Durham, and compelled Edward to withdraw his claim to the Scottish crown in 1328. The Scottish regalia were restored, and a marriage was agreed upon between Jane, the sister of Edward III., and David, the son

of Robert Bruce, who in the same year became David II. of Scotland.

Five years afterwards Edward invaded Scotland to maintain the cause of Edward, son of John Baliol, whom some of the English nobility kept out of their estates by David had chosen as king, and gained the battle of Halidon Hill near Berwick, in which the Regent Douglas was slain. Soon afterwards the king went abroad; for on the renewal of hostilities with the Scots, we read of him in France, whither he had gone to assert his claim to the French throne. This claim merits notice, for it led to a war between the two countries which lasted more than a century. Edward urged his claim as being, through his mother Isabella, who was daughter of Philip the Fourth, the rightful heir. But his claim to the French Crown was not tenable. Philip III. had died leaving two sons, Philip IV. and Charles of Valois. The family of Philip IV. consisted of three sons, who successively became Kings of France: Louis X., Philip V., and Charles IV., with one daughter, Isabella, the mother of Edward III. Philip VI. was the son of Charles of Valois, and so the undoubted heir to the Crown, if the right was to be transmitted according to the recently established "Salic Law," through males alone. But the question was raised, whether a female, though herself incapable of reigning, might not transmit the right to a male heir. Yet even so, the right would have devolved not on Edward but on Charles, King of Navarre, a grandson of Louis X. through his daughter Jane. A plea was then set up that though Edward was descended from Philip III., through a daughter he traced to Philip IV., the elder son of that king, whereas the reigning king was the son of Charles of Valois, a younger son. But this very kind of claim had been set aside in the case of Bruce and Baliol.

He undertook the war with the consent of his parliament, who granted him a quantity of wool which he was to barter or sell in Flanders.

His first victory was in a naval engagement off Sluys. On landing Edward pillaged the country, sacked the city of Caen, and marched almost to the gates of Paris. Philip

made every preparation to confront the English king, and the French general, Godemar de Faye, was posted on the opposite side of the Somme, at the point where the English army was to cross the river.

It is said, though nothing can be less reliable than such numerical statements, that the French army numbered 120,000, while Edward's did not exceed a fourth of that number. He took up his position on a piece of open ground near the village of Crecy.

His army he divided into three lines: the first was commanded by the young Prince of Wales, the second by the Earls of Arundel and Northampton, and the third was kept as a reserve under the command of the king in person. A similar division of his army was made by the French king. His first line consisted of Genoese crossbowmen, the second was commanded by his brother, the third by himself.

The battle began at three o'clock in the afternoon, by the king's command to the Genoese mercenaries to open the attack. They pleaded fatigue, and when the Count d'Alençon, upbraiding them with cowardice, had compelled them to begin, a heavy shower fell which the wind drove into their faces. The English archers discharged their arrows with the more effect, having a gleam of sunshine at their backs, which tended to dazzle the enemy's aim. The Genoese were thrown into confusion, and the Prince of Wales availed himself of the circumstance to charge the main line of the French. They were met by the enemy's cavalry, under the Count d'Alençon, who were rapidly surrounding them when the Earls of Arundel and Northampton came to the prince's assistance. His indomitable courage led him into the thickest of the fight, and it was suggested to the king to send succour to his son. He sent instead a word of encouragement, to say that the victory should be left to him alone. To so brave a prince no better succour could have been sent. A fresh attack was made upon the French cavalry, and the Count d'Alençon slain.

Edward availed himself of this footing, which he had gained in France, to lay siege to Calais, knowing its importance as a key to the country. It was ably defended

by the French governor, John de Vienne, and Edward spent nearly a year before the town; but it surrendered at last, and Edward to punish their obstinacy demanded the lives of six of the principal citizens; they offered themselves with ropes round their necks, but were spared at the entreaties of Queen Philippa. The town remained in the possession of the English from this time till that of Queen Mary.

Edward's wars in France afforded the Scots an opportunity of invading England. Under David Bruce, called David II., they were met by Queen Philippa and defeated in 1346 at Nevill's Cross, near Durham. David was taken captive and detained in England eleven years.

In 1356, just ten years after the victory of Crecy, another great victory was gained by the Black Prince at Poitiers, which resulted in the seizure of the person of John, King of France, who was brought over to England and led in triumph through the streets of London. There were now two kings at once captives at the English court. John died at the old Palace of the Savoy.

Edward, on the ground of his claim and his conquests, assumed the title of King of France, which was not laid aside by our monarchs till the first year of the present century; the original motto of Edward, "Dieu et mon Droit," is still retained.

Yet the English were quite unable to defend what they had so valiantly won. Toward the close of his reign Edward began to lose one after another of his French provinces, and Normandy he formally resigned. The policy of the French King, Charles V., who succeeded John, was to exhaust the English forces by cutting off the supplies for their army, and acting on the defensive rather than meeting them in battle. Gradually the English possessions were wrested from them, and the English dominions in France seemed to melt away.

To the great grief of the king, his brave and good son died of consumption at the age of forty-six, and the name of the Black Prince has passed into English history as one of unsullied brightness. Edward survived his illustrious and beloved son only a year, and died (sick of the responsibilities

of government, which he had abandoned to his ministers) at Sheen or Richmond.

The institution of the most noble Order of the Garter, according to one tradition, belongs to this reign ; but the common story of the garter of the Countess of Salisbury dropped at a ball, and presented to her by Edward with the remark addressed to her by the king on seeing some of the courtiers laughing at the occurrence, “*Honi soit qui mal y pense*” (“Shame to the thinker of evil”) is extensively disbelieved. Another tradition assigns a more military origin to the order, and says that it arose at the siege of Acre, when Richard Cœur de Lion signalized, by tying blue thongs of leather round their legs, twenty-five knights, who had defended his person in a desperate assault.

In this reign the art of cloth-weaving was introduced from Flanders, and Thomas Blanket, of Bristol, in 1331, set up looms for the fabrication of woollen cloths, which have immortalized his name. A step in advance in the way of general knowledge was made by public lectures at the schools, and pleadings in the courts of justice, being now held in English instead of in Norman French.

A Lord Mayor of London and a Speaker of the House of Commons were now first appointed, and the Commons, who more and more effectually remitted all taxes which they deemed arbitrary on the part of the king, established their right to impeach the ministers of the Crown.

MAIN POINTS.

Edward's marriage and family. Conduct of the Queen mother. End of Mortimer and Isabella. Withdrawal of claim to Scotland. Battle of Halidown Hill. Edward's claim to the French crown. On what founded. French war. Battle of Crecy. Siege of Calais. Battle of Poitiers. Loss of English possessions in France. Character and death of Edward the Black Prince. Death of the King. Order of the Garter. Cloth-weaving and blankets. English language in courts of law. Advance of popular liberty.

CHAPTER XVI.

RICHARD II. A.D. 1377—A.D. 1399.

RICHARD II., surnamed of Bordeaux, was the son of Edward the Black Prince, and therefore grandson of the late king. He was born in 1366, and was eleven years old when he was crowned at Westminster ; he reigned twenty-two years, till his deposition, and died the following year.

He married, in 1382, Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV. ; and secondly, eleven years later, Eleanor Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France ; but he had no issue by either wife.

As Richard came to the throne as a minor, the regency was vested in his three uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester.

The treasury was exhausted by the wars of the late king, and new wars might be expected, especially with Scotland.

As a supply, Parliament granted a tax of three groats on every person above the age of fifteen. This tax, which fell on the poor to the same amount as the rich, set the kingdom in flames. The discontent gathered to a head in Essex, where a blacksmith, Wat Tyler, struck the tax-collector dead with his hammer, for maintaining in an offensive manner that his daughter was over the specified age, in spite of his word to the contrary. The insurrection spread through the home counties, headed by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, and meeting first at Blackheath to the number of many thousands, the insurgents thence proceeded to Smithfield. Here, Tyler was invited by the king to a conference, and on being called upon to state his grievances, he demanded three points ; the first, that all slaves should be liberated ; the second, that all rights of common should be allowed to poor as well as rich ; and the third, that a general pardon should be granted for all who might have taken part in the late disturbances. The blacksmith's manner either was, or seemed to be, too defiant, and Sir William Wal-orth, the Lord Mayor, who was in attendance on the

king, stunned him with a blow of his mace, upon which one of the attendant knights riding up, despatched him with his sword. The rebels were preparing to make an attack upon the king's party, when Richard himself, not yet sixteen years of age, rode up and addressed them. He called upon them to raise no hand against their king, but to follow him to the field as their lawful leader: they did so, and he granted them a charter, which was a republication of a former grant, and the terms of which he subsequently revoked.

The regency had continued to control the affairs of the kingdom till, at the age of twenty-two, the king asserted in an extraordinary Parliament his intention to assume the reins of government. But his management of affairs showed him wanting in the qualities requisite for supreme rule. He seems to have had no strength of mind or weight of character, but to have been a frivolous and irresolute man in the daily business of government, however spirited might be his behaviour on extraordinary occasions; fond of pageantry, and festivities, and expensive living.

The murder of the Duke of Gloucester, whom the king had confined at Calais, aggravated his unpopularity, and this was brought to a crisis by the proceedings of the Duke of Hereford.

The case is as follows. The duke had quarrelled with the Duke of Norfolk, whom in the course of the quarrel he had charged with treasonable words against the king. Norfolk denied the charge, and challenged Hereford to single combat. As no evidence was forthcoming, this barbarous ordeal was arranged to take place. The combatants met as appointed in the presence of the king, who summarily banished both from the kingdom, Norfolk for life, Hereford for ten years. Norfolk died at Venice. Hereford's term was afterwards shortened to four years, and he received letters from the king, insuring him any inheritance which might fall to him in the period. It so happened that by the death of his father, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Hereford inherited his patrimonial estate, upon which the king revoked his patent and took the Lancaster estate to himself.

Hereford determined upon revenge, and would be satisfied with nothing short of the deposition of the king. Accordingly he took advantage of Richard's absence in Ireland to quell an insurrection, to invade his dominions. He landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire with only sixty adherents. The Earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, came to his assistance, and he soon found himself at the head of an army of sixty thousand men.

Richard had been detained in Ireland by contrary winds, and the detention gave time to Hereford's party to acquire large reinforcements. On the king's return to Milford Haven his dispirited followers deserted him daily, and he was left with only six thousand men.

In despair of maintaining his own cause he proposed a conference to Hereford, which was fixed to take place near Chester. But Hereford's purpose was not to parley but to dictate. He told Richard that his subjects were dissatisfied with an incapable reign of three and twenty years, and that it was his intention, "with the help of God, to assist the king to reign better." "Fair cousin," was the reply of the humiliated Richard, "since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise."

From this time Richard's life was a series of indignities. He was next confined in the Tower of London. When they had appeared in public together, the popular cry had always been, "Long live the good Duke of Lancaster." Richard was easily brought to sign an abdication; but Hereford, willing to give his proceedings every possible sanction, called a Parliament who, finding Richard guilty upon a charge of thirty-three articles, solemnly deposed him, and the Earl of Hereford, now Duke of Lancaster, was elected in his stead by the title of Henry IV.

Means were found to put the king out of the way, and he was murdered in Pomfret Castle either by an attack of assassins, or, according to another account, by starvation. He was buried at King's Langley in Hertfordshire, but his body was afterwards, by order of Henry V., removed to Westminster.

It is evident, however, that great uncertainty attaches

itself to the closing events of this reign. Not only is there discrepancy in the accounts handed down of the mode of his death, but a distinct tradition asserts that he was not murdered at Pomfret at all, but escaped to Scotland, and died at Stirling in 1419.

The Scotch wars of this reign did not assume great importance. A Scottish invasion was made in concert with the French, and Edinburgh, Perth, Dundee, and other towns were pillaged and burnt.

The battle of Otterburn, in Northumberland, was fought in 1388 between the Earls Percy and Douglas, on which is founded the old ballad of Chevy Chase.

While these more conspicuous events of history were taking place, others of equal importance were silently transacted. Architecture made great progress under William of Wykeham, the founder of Winchester and New Colleges, the architect of the more recent portion of Winchester Cathedral, of Windsor Castle, and Westminster Hall, who held the office of Chancellor of England. John Wycliffe, born in 1324, died at the age of sixty-one; he was the precursor of the English Reformation, and the leader of a sect contemptuously called Lollards. He was buried in his own church at Lutterworth till 1428, when his bones were disinterred and cast into the Severn. Chaucer and Gower, the former poet-laureate to Richard II., developed the resources of the English language, and were the first to mould the mixed ingredients of our native tongue to its present form.

MAIN POINTS.

Relationship of Richard to the royal family. His double marriage. Poll-tax. Insurrection. Wat Tyler. His demands. Character of the King. Quarrel of the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk. The King's treatment of Hereford. Hereford's insurrection. Its success. The King's abdication. Uncertainty about his death. Border wars. Battle of Otterburn. William of Wykeham. Chaucer. Gower.

CHAPTER XVII.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER, OR RED ROSE. A.D. 1399—A.D. 1461.

HENRY IV. A.D. 1399—A.D. 1413.

By a successful insurrection, Henry IV., surnamed Bolingbroke, from his birthplace in Lincolnshire, grandson of Edward III., being the eldest son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, was raised to the throne. He was crowned at Westminster in 1399, at the age of thirty-three, and reigned fourteen years. Not that he was by natural descent next to the throne, his father being the fifth son of Edward III., and nearer descendants were in existence.

Henry IV. was twice married—first to Mary de Bohun, daughter of Humphrey, Earl of Hereford; and secondly, to Isabella Joan, daughter of Charles the Bad, King of Navarre, and widow of John V., Duke of Brittany.

By his second marriage he had no children: by his first, Henry, who succeeded him as Henry V.; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford; Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; Blanche and Philippa.

Henry soon felt all the troubles, internal and external, which belong to usurped crowns. The barons were violent and seditious. Conspiracies were formed against him, of which that of the Earl of Northumberland was the most formidable. Northumberland, in border skirmishes, had carried prisoner Archibald, Earl of Douglas, and other Scottish nobles to Alnwick Castle. According to the usage of the day, their ransom was their captor's right; but Henry sent to prohibit the earl from taking such ransom, as he wished to detain the Scottish nobles to facilitate his own terms of peace with Scotland. This interference with his feudal rights Northumberland determined to resent. A scheme was planned by the Percies, and the Welsh, under Owen Glendower, to raise the standard of revolt in favour of Mortimer the Earl of March, great-grandson of Lionel, an older son of Edward III. than John of Gaunt, from whom the reigning king was descended.

Henry hurried down to Shrewsbury and encountered the rebel party at Hateley Field, where they were defeated, and Henry Hotspur, the Earl of Northumberland's son, who, in the absence of his father from sickness, had the command, was slain. Northumberland, recovered from his illness, was bringing reinforcements when he heard of his son's defeat and death. He determined at once to dismiss the project of the insurrection, and appeared before the king at York with the apology that his object in arming was to mediate between the insurgents and the king. Henry either was or pretended to be satisfied, and Northumberland was pardoned.

The king's policy was now to acquire all the popularity he could, and to this end he accorded even more than their former claims to the House of Commons, and allowed them, after the voting of grants to the Crown, to appoint commissioners of their own to secure the legitimate expenditure of the money.

The steady and conciliatory conduct of the king was no pattern to his son Henry, Prince of Wales, who, with his boon companions, was living a turbulent and extravagant life.

Striking the Judge Gascoigne, Chief Justice of England, when administering justice to some freebooters with whom he felt a sympathy, he was by the judge committed to prison. The king, on hearing of the circumstance, congratulated himself on possessing a magistrate who could so firmly administer, and a son who could so submissively bow to the authority of the law.

The pardon of Northumberland had not the effect of quelling his seditious spirit. His confederates, Scrope, Archbishop of York, and the Earl of Nottingham, abetted the popular side against the king, and being taken by stratagem, were beheaded; Scrope being the first bishop executed in England on the charge of a political offence. Northumberland, hearing of the death of his friends, fled to Scotland, thence into Wales; but returning, raised an army, with which he met the king's forces, and was slain at Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire.

It is somewhat remarkable that this reign, which first

witnessed the death of a bishop on a charge of treason, is also memorable for the first burning on the charge of heresy: this was in the case of Sawtree, rector of St. Oswy whole, in London, in 1401.

Commercial transactions were facilitated by the introduction of Bills of Exchange.

The Order of the Bath was instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.; and cannon, which were first used at Crecy, were employed at the siege of Berwick.

The year 1407 was memorable for a plague, which carried off thirty thousand persons. In the same year James, son of Robert III., of Scotland, was seized on his way to France, off the coast of Yorkshire, during a truce between the two kingdoms, and detained in London till £40,000 was paid for his ransom, a sample of the unscrupulous means by which money was in those times procured.

Henry died in the Jerusalem Chamber at Westminster, and was buried at Canterbury. When the king was supposed to be dead, Prince Henry removed the crown from the room. His father, partially recovering, complained of the act, and taunted him with not knowing that, as his father had no right to the crown, so the son could have none. "My liege," said the prince, "with your sword you won it, and with my sword I will keep it." "Be it as you will," answered the dying Henry; "I leave all to God, and may He have mercy on my soul."

MAIN POINTS.

Origin of House of Lancaster. King's double marriage and offspring. Quarrel with the Earl of Northumberland. Pacification. King's conciliatory policy. Concessions to the Commons. Character of Prince Henry. Renewal of sedition by Northumberland. Execution of Archbishop Scrope and the Earl of Nottingham. First burning for heresy. Improvement in commercial transactions. Order of the Bath instituted. Use of Cannon. Plague. Seizure of Prince James of Scotland. Death of the king.

CHAPTER XVIII.

HENRY V. A.D. 1413—A.D. 1422.

HENRY V., surnamed of Monmouth, and Prince of Wales, was born in 1388, succeeded his father in 1413, when he was crowned at Westminster, and reigned till his death in 1422.

He married Catherine, daughter of Charles VI., King of France, who, after Henry's death, married a gentleman of Wales, Owen Tudor, by whom she had a son, Edmund, Earl of Richmond. He married the daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and was father of Henry Tudor, afterwards Henry VII.

Henry V. had but one son, who succeeded him as Henry VI.

The better nature of Henry began to manifest itself on his accession to the throne. He kindly, but firmly dismissed the somewhat lawless companions with whom he had associated, giving them, at the same time, an opportunity of following in his own steps of reformation, and rising to honour and usefulness in the State. He allayed, by his honourable demeanour, the fears and misgivings of those who had been his father's steadfast adherents, and who augured ill from the recent change. He showed marked respect to the Judge Gascoigne, who had so firmly corrected his youthful extravagances.

At the commencement of this reign the followers of Wycliffe, commonly called Lollards, began to number more and more followers. Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham, was the principal abettor of the opinions of the Wycliffites. Lord Cobham was indicted by the primate, and condemned to be burnt alive as a heretic. He was confined to the Tower, escaped to St. Giles's, where many of his party were executed; thence he eluded the king's guards, and was not captured till four years afterwards, during the king's absence in France. He was condemned as a traitor and heretic, and burnt in 1417, at St. Giles's, the first of the English nobility that suffered for heresy.

The circumstances of his execution were horrible : he was hung up by a chain, and roasted to death before a slow fire.

The circumstances of France were such as to invite Henry's ambition to invade it. The country had been thrown into the worst disorder by the lunacy of its king, Charles VI., and the consequent struggle for the regency between his brother, the Duke of Orleans, and his cousin, the Duke of Burgundy. A conspiracy which he detected, to place the Earl of March upon the throne, detained Henry awhile. The Earl of March was pardoned, but the principal conspirators, the Earl of Cambridge, Lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, were hastily tried and executed. Nevertheless, two years before Lord Cobham's execution, Henry had invaded France and taken Harfleur. The dauphin paid dearly for his joke of sending the English king a ton of tennis-balls, as implying that he was better at sport than war ; or, perhaps, that the invasion of Henry was looked upon by himself as a matter of sport.

Henry met, however, with an enemy more formidable than the French. A dysentery carried off three-fourths of his army, and he began to think of a retreat to Calais. The enemy resolved to intercept his retreat ; and having crossed the river Tertois he found the French army drawn up to hinder his further progress on the plains of Agincourt, a village in the county of Artois. Every disadvantage existed to dispirit the English army : they were in an enemy's country, cut off from supplies, ravaged by disease, which had reduced their number to nine thousand men, while the French amounted to nearly ten times the number, and they were greatly fatigued by forced marches and want of supplies.

Henry rested the wings of his army upon woods, which lay to the right and left of him, for protection. The Constable of France was at the head of one army, Henry himself with Edward, Duke of York, commanded the other. For a time each army confronted the other in silence, till Henry animating his men by the seeming reluctance of the enemy to engage, and, invoking the aid of the Holy Trinity, advanced to the charge ; the battle was begun by a discharge of arrows from the English archers. The

charge of the French cavalry against these was met by an ambuscade of more archers, who shot them on the flank, and afterwards rushed in upon them sword in hand. A slaughter ensued which led to a panic in the French army, and finally to their total discomfiture. Henry had ordered the execution of all prisoners, but stopped the continuation of it on hearing of his victory.

It is said that in this battle the French lost 10,000 men, and that 14,000 were taken prisoners, while the loss of the English amounted in all to forty.

Henry after the battle of Agincourt returned to England; but two years after the year of the barbarous execution of Lord Cobham he again entered France, led partly by a desire of turning his own and his people's attention away from such scenes, and encouraged in his project by the distracted condition of the French kingdom.

The king, Charles VI., was still hopelessly imbecile. The Duke of Burgundy had assassinated the Duke of Orleans, and himself fell by the intrigues of the dauphin. At this juncture the English king entered France and took several of the towns, as Evreux, Falaise, Caen, and Rouen. By the Treaty of Troyes, it was agreed that Henry should marry the Princess Catherine, govern the kingdom as regent during the life of Charles, and succeed him as king upon Charles's demise. Henry, therefore, in 1422, having previously held a parliament at Rouen, made, with his queen and infant son, a grand entry into Paris, where the French were amused with the pageantry of two courts at once.

But in the same year the English king was smitten with mortal disease. He died of fistula at Vincennes, near Paris, in August. Charles died in the October following. The body of Henry was taken with great pomp to England, and buried in Westminster Abbey.

MAIN POINTS.

Marriage. His wife's second marriage. Tudor descent. Change of character in the king. Execution of Lord Cobham for treason and heresy. Condition of France. Henry invades France. Battle of Agincourt. Return of the king to England. Second invasion of Normandy. Treaty of Troyes. Death and burial of the king.

CHAPTER XIX.

HENRY VI. A.D. 1422—A.D. 1461.

HENRY VI., surnamed of Windsor, from his birthplace, was born in 1421, and was only nine months old at the time of his father's death, of whom he was the only son. Of the two kingdoms which he inherited, England was placed under the protection of his uncle Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and the Duke of Bedford was made Regent of France. He was crowned King of England and France at Westminster, being seven years old at the time, and King of France at Paris in the following year. He reigned till 1461, when Edward, Duke of York, the first of that house, was proclaimed king.

Henry married Margaret, daughter of René, Duke of Anjou, a woman of most admirable character. His son Edward, Prince of Wales, never came to the throne, being supplanted by the house of York. At the battle of Tewkesbury, in 1471, young Edward was taken prisoner and stabbed by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, King Edward's brother, after the youth had boldly in Edward's presence asserted his right to the Crown.

The character of Henry VI. was one of meekness and piety rather than bravery or activity. The English rapidly lost in his reign almost all their French possessions.

Yet the Duke of Bedford was a powerful upholder of his country's interest in France; and the dying reputation of the English was for a while revived by the battle of Verneuil in 1424; and by an engagement which is recorded in history under the peculiar name of the battle of the Herrings five years afterwards, taking its name from the circumstance that the victorious convoy was bringing herrings to the English army.

The tide of affairs, which had long turned against the English in France, received a final impulse in those efforts of the French which were connected with the romantic story of Joan of Arc. She was a servant maid of good character at an inn at Neuf-

chatel in Lorrain. Inspired from heaven, as she believed herself to be, to undertake her country's liberation, she persuaded the military governor of Vaucouleurs and the court at Chinon to recognise her supernatural claim. The priesthood aided in giving effect to her influence over the credulous minds of the people. She appeared before the city of Orleans, which the English were then besieging, girt with the sword from the Church of St. Catherine de Fierbois, which the Virgin in a vision had directed her to go and demand for her use, and displaying a banner of her own. So inspirited was the French army by her appearance that the English were compelled to raise the siege of Orleans. Victory followed upon victory till the French king, according to Joan's prediction, was solemnly crowned at Rheims.

But Joan herself was soon afterwards captured in the city of Compiègne, or rather outside its gates, from which she had made a sally against the forces of the Duke of Burgundy, who was besieging the town. The Duke of Bedford purchased her of the Count de Vendôme, and being publicly tried and condemned at Rouen for sorcery, a crime of which she only began to be suspected when the tide of her fortune had turned, she was in that city publicly burnt alive.

The mild and incapable character of Henry, which gave little satisfaction to his energetic nobles, was aggravated by these failures of the nation abroad, which in a few years from the coronation of Henry VI. at Paris, could claim only Calais within the French borders. A new interest was waiting to be revived, and the present seemed a favourable juncture for the purpose.

Richard, Duke of York, was descended, by the mother's side, from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III., whereas the reigning king was descended from John of Gaunt, a younger son of the same monarch. Richard, therefore, stood nearer to the throne in the natural line of succession, and he began to regard the weakness and disaffection which belonged to this reign as affording a favourable opportunity for asserting his pretensions. The cognizance of Richard was a white rose, that of Henry, a

red rose. From these was derived the name which designated the bloody civil wars of the Roses, which were now on the eve of desolating the kingdom.

The unpopularity of the government made itself felt even among the lowest, and an insurrection was headed by Jack Cade, a native of Ireland, who for misdemeanour had been compelled to fly to France. He assumed the name of Mortimer, and marched against London at the head of twenty thousand men. The king sent a message to Cade who was then at Blackheath, to inquire the cause of the disturbance; the answer was, that evil ministers deserved punishment, and the grievances of the people demanded redress. For a while Cade held his authority in London but indiscretion and the collision of his followers with the citizens soon brought him into disgrace, and thinned the number of his adherents. He fled to the woods of Kent and, a price being put upon his head, was caught at Rothfield in Sussex, and put to death by Alexander Ide, the sheriff of Kent.

The king now fell ill, and the Duke of York was appointed protector, with the royal prerogative of convening the Parliament at his own discretion. How long the king might have remained inactive under the growing usurpations of the Duke of York, if left to himself, it is impossible to say; but his consort, Margaret of Anjou, brought matters to a crisis. Henry was compelled to take the field.

The first battle fought was at St. Albans, in 1455. The royal army, led by the king and queen, was defeated, the Duke of Somerset killed, and the king taken prisoner.

During the king's captivity the armies met again, four years later, at Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, when, Sir Andrew Trollope deserting to the royal side, the Yorkists abandoned the engagement after a slight struggle.

The battle of Northampton followed in the next year when the queen's forces were defeated, and the king, who had again joined her, was taken prisoner.

Another battle was fought in the same year at Wakefield Green, in Yorkshire, in which the cause of the queen seemed established, for Richard, Duke of York, was slain. This Richard was the father of Edward IV. and Richard II.

But Margaret had to contend with one who was, both in the council and in the field, the first man of his age. This remarkable man was the Earl of Warwick. He put himself at the head of the Yorkists, and fought the second battle of St. Albans, in which, however, he suffered defeat, and the person of the king again passed into the hands of his own party.

But Warwick and the Yorkists now gained a great acquisition in the person of young Edward, the son of the late Duke of York. Brave, handsome, and popular, he entered London amid the acclamations of the people. Warwick, convening the citizens in St. John's fields, set forth the title of Edward, and inveighed against the weakness and tyranny of the house of Lancaster. An engagement took place at Towton, in Yorkshire, in which Edward, finding the tide of war to be running in his own favour, issued orders to give no quarter. Nearly 40,000 of the Lancastrians were slain. Henry and his family, who were waiting the result at York, fled into Scotland.

Edward was now, through the Earl of Warwick, fixed on his throne, his title being recognised by both Parliament and people, when he evidenced a spirit of combined gallantry and cruelty, which excited the alarm of his staunch friend and adviser, the Earl of Warwick.

The earl procured the king's permission to go to France, for the purpose of negotiating his marriage with Bona of Savoy, but during his absence the king fell in love with the Lady Elizabeth Grey, widow of Sir John Grey, who had been killed at the second battle of St. Albans, and who, being the daughter of Sir Richard Woodville, is commonly known in history as Elizabeth Woodville. She survived her royal husband, and on his death retired to a convent in Bermondsey, where she died in 1492.

Edward had now seriously offended Warwick, yet his feeling was to perpetuate the breach and to dismiss him from his council and company. It was a graver matter than Edward had anticipated. Warwick was strong enough to take revenge.

His party drove the king out of the kingdom. A parlia-

ment was called, which took Henry from the Tower and proclaimed him king. This act following his original support of Edward as king, gained for the Earl of Warwick the title of the king-maker.

Edward retired to Holland, but his cause was not so weak but that he had many supporters in England, and at the end of nine months he found himself once again in his kingdom with a body of troops which had been granted him by the Duke of Burgundy.

He landed at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, and marching southwards, received reinforcements as he went. He entered London, received the homage of the citizens, and sent Henry back to the Tower.

A battle was fought at Barnet, in Hertfordshire, in which the Lancastrians were defeated, and among the slain was the illustrious Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, the king-maker.

Within a month, in the same year, 1471, another battle was fought at Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire, in which the victory once more fell to Edward, and so closed the devastating Wars of the Roses, in which it is said that 100,000 lives were lost.

The Queen, Margaret, with her son Edward, were taken after the battle of Tewkesbury, and brought into the king's presence. Being asked how he had dared to invade England, the prince's answer was that he desired to redress his father's wrongs and his own. The king enraged at his intrepidity struck him on the mouth with his gauntlet, and this served as a signal to the lords who stood by to stab him to death with their daggers.

Margaret, who had sustained her husband's cause in twelve battles, was sent to the Tower, where she remained in confinement for four years, till she was ransomed by Louis XI. for 50,000 crowns. She died in 1480.

It was now resolved to put the old king to death. Though much mystery envelopes the end of King Henry, it is supposed to have been brought about by his assassination in the Tower by Richard, Duke of Gloucester. His remains were buried at Chertsey, in Surrey, and afterwards re-

moved to Windsor. When Henry VII. wished to remove them to his new chapel at Westminster they could nowhere be found.

MAIN POINTS.

Infancy of the king. Protectors of England and France. Double coronation. Marriage; and fate of his son. King's character. Battle of Verneuil. Decrease of English power in France. Joan of Arc. Coronation of the French king. The claims of the House of York. Insurrection of Jack Cade. Battles of St. Albans, Bloreheath Northampton, Wakefield. Second battle of St. Albans. Earl of Warwick. Battle of Towton. Flight of Henry. Elizabeth Grey or Woodville. Warwick's ejection of Edward and replacement of Henry on the throne. Return of Edward. Battle of Barnet. Battle of Tewkesbury. End of Margaret. Mystery of the king's death.

CHAPTER XX.

EDWARD IV. A.D. 1461—A.D. 1483.

EDWARD IV. was now sole King of England; but the main events of his reign had taken place during the life-time of Henry VI.

To the close of his reign belongs his amour with Jane Shore, the wife of a goldsmith in Lombard-street, whom he seduced from her husband, and who, after his death, was compelled to do open penance in St. Paul's church-yard.

Another circumstance showed the wild dissoluteness of the man who had the reputation of being the handsomest man of his dominions. He was hunting in the park of Thomas Burdet, a dependent of his brother, the Duke of Clarence, when he shot a white buck, which was a pet of the owner. Burdet, in rage and mortification, wished the horns of the animal in the body of him who could prompt the king to so ungenerous an insult. For this Burdet was tried for his life, and executed at Tyburn. The Duke of Clarence expressed such strong dissatisfaction at this iniquitous proceeding that he too was arraigned before the House of Lords, the king appearing in person as his accuser. He was sentenced to death, and either drowned in

a butt of Malmsey, or killed first, and his body, as a satire on his habits, thrown into it after death.

Two provisions, which had their origin in this reign, were designed to protect the interests of the realm in respect to foreign countries. The one, the passing of the first corn-law; the other, the appointment of consuls for the protection of commerce in foreign ports; but the most signal event of all was the erection of the first printing-press by William Caxton, a mercer, in the Sanctuary at Westminster.

The first book printed in the English language was published at Bruges, under the title of "Recuyell of the Historyes of Troy," but a work on chess was printed in England itself three years later.

Edward IV. died in 1483, of a fever, at Westminster, and was buried in St. George's chapel at Windsor, of which he had laid the foundation.

MAIN POINTS.

Intrigue with Jane Shore. Death of the Duke of Clarence. First corn-laws. Appointment of consuls. First printing-press. Earliest English book. Death and burial of the king.

CHAPTER XXI.

EDWARD V. AND RICHARD III. A.D. 1483—A.D. 1485.

EDWARD V., the eldest son of Edward IV., was twelve years old when his father died. He was proclaimed king a few days after that event, but was never crowned.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, had been appointed protector of the kingdom on the king's death; and under pretence of placing them in a place of safety, deposited the late king's two children in the Tower. The deaths of these two children are matters still shrouded in mystery.

Sir James Tyrell, who was executed in the time of Henry VII. for treason, is said to have divulged the secret. Brackenbury was the governor of the Tower at the time,

and was persuaded to allow Tyrell to have the keys for a single night. Tyrell accordingly chose three associates—Slater, Deighton, and Forest—whom he deputed to put the young princes to death. This they did by suffocating them, as they lay asleep, with their pillows. Their bodies were brought out to Tyrell, who had them buried at the foot of a staircase, where, in the time of Charles II., a wooden chest was discovered containing two bodies, which, by the king's order, were placed in a marble urn and buried in the chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster.

Jane Shore's penance, already noticed, was performed in consequence of Richard's charge of sorcery against his person, in which he accused Lord Hastings of being implicated.

On this fantastic charge of high treason, Lord Hastings was arrested by the regent, and beheaded in the Tower-yard without trial. His real crime was an attachment to the young king's interests.

Richard now aimed more decisively at the Crown, and in his project he had the assistance of the Duke of Buckingham. But he moved craftily, and step by step. He began by spreading the report that the children were illegitimate, inasmuch as the king had been privately married to Lady Eleanor Butler before his connexion with Lady Grey or Elizabeth Woodville. This was publicly stated in a sermon at St. Paul's Cross. His accomplice, the Duke of Buckingham, persuaded the citizens of London to the same effect, and urged them to offer the Crown to Richard, at Baynard Castle, near Queenhithe. After a show of reluctance, and a hypocritical expression of love for his brother's children, the Duke of Gloucester seemed to give way to the entreaties of the citizens and Buckingham.

Richard was born at Fotheringay Castle, in Northamptonshire, in 1452, and was crowned at Westminster with his queen in 1483. She was Ann Neville, a daughter of the Earl of Warwick, the king-maker, and widow of Edward, Prince of Wales, the son of Henry VI., who was killed after the battle of Tewkesbury. Among other horrible suspicions which attach to Richard III. is the assas-

sination of his wife, in order to pave the way for a marriage with his niece Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., a favourite with the people, and nearer to the throne than himself. This scheme was unsuccessful.

He had but one son, Edward, who, in 1484, was created Prince of Wales, at the age of nine years, but died three months afterwards. On his death the king declared the Earl of Lincoln, son of the Duke of Suffolk, heir to the kingdom.

The Duke of Buckingham had received the office of constable and other dignities from the king; but the accession of wealth in him had produced a craving for more. He had been refused the request of certain confiscated lands. The refusal rankled in his mind, and he determined to conspire against his master. He had raised forces in Wales, and was marching towards Gloucester, where he purposed to cross the Severn. But unusual rains had so swollen the river as to cause an inundation of the surrounding country, and the duke was unable to advance. His troops, not finding provisions, dispersed, and he himself took refuge in the house of an old servant, Bannister. The price set upon the duke's head was too strong a temptation for Bannister. He betrayed his master to the Sheriff of Shropshire, who, surrounding the house, found the duke disguised in the habit of a peasant. He was sent to Salisbury, and there summarily tried, sentenced, and executed.

A far more formidable and successful rebellion was at hand. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, being a descendant from John of Gaunt, by the female line, determined to aim at the Crown. He was at this time an exile in Brittany, and his intention of invading England reached the king's ears. Not knowing at what point the invader might be expected to land, Richard distributed his forces upon the coast, with the exception of a choice army, which he led to the neighbourhood of Nottingham, as being a central position of his dominions. Henry, with two thousand men, with which he had been furnished by the King of France, landed at Milford Haven. His men, by reinforcements, soon amounted

to six thousand, and on Bosworth field, in Leicestershire, the two armies met.

And not only the two armies, but the two leaders met, and a furious hand-to-hand combat ensued between Henry and Richard. In this the king was entirely defeated. He fell to the ground a mass of wounds, his armour battered through and through.

After the battle, the body of the king was placed upon a horse and taken into Leicester, and was there hastily buried in the church of the Grey Friars. It was disinterred at the time of Henry VIII.'s dissolution of the monastery; and a stone coffin, believed to be that of the king, was used as a drinking-trough for horses at one of the inns of the town.

Richard, like one or two kings before him, had worn his crown on the field at Bosworth. It was afterwards discovered in a hawthorn bush close by; and this discovery is perpetuated by the device of a crown in a bush, which appears on the tomb of the victor, Henry VII., in Westminster Abbey.

The battle of Bosworth was the last of thirteen fought between the houses of York and Lancaster.

A son of Richard III. survived him, who lived to an advanced age in poverty and obscurity. Richard Plantagenet appears to have died at the age of eighty. He is registered in the parish register of the church of Eastwell, in Kent, as having been there interred.

Richard's was a short and precarious reign; and, in attempting to form an estimate of his character, we must bear in mind that he was a Yorkist, and his historians wrote under the Tudors. Even his bodily deformity is, by many, believed to have been exaggerated. Stowe, the antiquary, who lived in the next generation, says that he had heard from old men who had seen the king, that he was comely and of good proportion, but low in stature.

This reign was distinguished by the enactment of statutes in the English language, instead of the Latin or old Norman French, and the invention of printing began to be applied to their publication.

MAIN POINTS.

Proclamation of infant king. His uncle Protector. Mystery of the death of young king and his brother. Unsatisfactory evidence of the case. Richard's execution of Lord Hastings. He spreads the report of the children's illegitimacy. The Duke of Buckingham. Coronation of Richard III. His wife. Suspicions of his intentions against her. King's child dies. He declares the Earl of Lincoln heir to the crown. Animosity of the Duke of Buckingham. His execution. Rebellion of Henry Tudor. Battle of Bosworth. Defeat and death of the king. Uncertainty of the picture commonly drawn of his character and person.

CHAPTER XXII.

HOUSE OF TUDOR. A.D. 1485—A.D. 1603.

HENRY VII. A.D. 1485—A.D. 1509.

HENRY VII., or Henry Tudor, was son of Margaret, daughter of John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, who was grandson of John of Gaunt, son of Edward III. His father, Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was son of that Owen Tudor who became the second husband of Catherine, queen of Henry V. Richmond was born at Pembroke a few months after his father's death, crowned at Westminster in 1485, and reigned till 1509.

He married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV., that niece whom Richard Crookback was suspected of murdering his wife in order to marry, and who was nearer than Henry himself in relationship to the crown. She died in 1503, six years before her husband. Yet, by that union, Henry had cemented the last bond between the houses of York and Lancaster.

The sons and daughters of the king were: Arthur, Prince of Wales, married to Catherine of Arragon, afterwards the wife of his younger brother, Henry, who became Henry VIII.; Margaret, who married James IV. of Scotland, a marriage negotiated by Wolsey; and Mary, married first to Louis XII. of France, and secondly, after his death, to Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

The reign of Henry was from the first disturbed by civil commotions. The first attempt was one which had the abettance of Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV.

Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker at Oxford, was trained by a priest, Richard Simon, to personate the character of the Earl of Warwick, son of the brother of Richard III.—that Duke of Clarence who had been drowned in the butt of Malmsey. He was transported to Ireland, that his entry upon the stage from that distance might be the more imposing. Joined by Lord Lovel, Lord Lincoln, and other lords, he landed in Lancashire with some German and Irish troops, marched to York, the people showing very little willingness to join his standard, till he met the king's troops at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham. Here, after a bloody fight, Simnel and Simon were taken prisoners: the latter was committed to confinement to be judged by the ecclesiastical tribunals; Simnel received the king's pardon, and an office in the kitchen of the royal household.

An insurrection broke out in Yorkshire. The Earl of Northumberland, aiding the collectors of the king's taxes against the people, who had refused to pay them, was attacked and put to death. Proceeding further, the people appointed John Archamber and Sir John Egremont their leaders, and prepared for a more systematic resistance to the royal demands. The king's troops, under the Earl of Surrey, met them, and took Archamber and Egremont prisoners: the former was executed; the latter escaped to the court of the Duchess of Burgundy. The duchess had failed in the imposture of Simnel; she now ventured upon another project against the king.

She spread the report that the young Duke of York, said to have been murdered in the Tower, was still alive. The people seemed everywhere to receive the news as welcome. A youth of Flemish origin, Peterkin or Perkin Warbeck, was sufficiently clever and good-looking to personate him. Many who began to aid the scheme as an imposture went on to believe in it as genuine. Several noblemen and gentlemen abetted the cause of Warbeck, of whom

the most important was Sir William Stanley, the Lord Chamberlain, brother to the Lord Stanley who had fought with the king at Bosworth, and placed the crown upon Henry's head with his own hands. The king was not inactive. By spies he watched the movements of his enemies both at home and in Flanders, and learnt from Sir Robert Clifford, who had come back to his allegiance, the story of Warbeck's birth and life. Many were arraigned, convicted, and sentenced on the charge of high treason. Three gentlemen, Mountfort, Ratcliff, and Danbury, were executed.

Warbeck now turned to Scotland. James IV. believed his story, and brought about his marriage with Lady Catherine Gordon, daughter of the Earl of Huntley, and nearly related to himself. The Scotch king even entered England, proclaiming Warbeck as he went; but the cause had grown stale, and the Flemings, suffering from the interruption of their trade, desired peace with England.

Warbeck now betook himself to Ireland. Here, in concert with his followers, Herne, Skelton, and Astley, he resolved to try his fortunes in Cornwall, and making his appearance at Bodmin, was joined by the people to the number of 3000. From Bodmin he marched to Exeter, and failing to force the gates of the city, moved on to Taunton, having taken the title of Richard IV. His followers now numbered 7000 men. Yet the heart of the adventurer failed him on hearing that the king was coming against him. So he deserted his followers, and hid himself in the Abbey of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. The ringleaders only were executed. Warbeck himself was brought to the king, and compelled to sign a confession of his imposture. Yet it seemed hardly to carry conviction with it, and to this day the story of Perkin Warbeck is an historic doubt. After ineffectual attempts to escape from confinement, he was, with many of his adherents, hanged at Tyburn.

Posterity has recognised in Henry VII. a wise legislator and a far-sighted politician. If his fear of losing his crown made him suspicious and reserved, such faults may be attributed rather to his circumstances than to his character. *If his love of money, or appreciation of its value, was*

extravagant, the obnoxiousness of kingly taxation, even mitigated as it was by the increased powers of Parliament, was still great; nor could the crown be considered from day to day secure from the obligation of expensive wars at home or abroad. Henry may have preferred to lay up funds for such purposes to the impolicy of too many of his predecessors, who were compelled to find the sinews of war after the contest had commenced. Of the political foresight of Henry's character an example appears in his marriage of his daughter to James IV. of Scotland, and the provision therein implied for a future union of the two kingdoms. The economical policy of Henry exhibited itself in his commutation of penalties for fines, which should go to fill his own treasury. Empson and Dudley, two lawyers, were employed by him to exact money from such adherents of the family of York as should give any colour to the charge of disaffection. The raising of such fines was the province of the newly-instituted office of the Star Chamber. The royal contracts, especially with the Jews, kept in this office were called Starra, whence the name Star Chamber. He accepted, too, large sums of money from Louis XII., given to induce him to resign all claim to French estates or provinces. By such means as these he had amassed, at the end of his life, money to the present value of 12,000,000*l.* sterling. Towards the close, however, of his reign he seems to have been visited with compunctions of conscience for what, in many instances, he must have felt to have amounted to rapacity or extortion, and to have desired to make some restitution. He paid off the debts of those who had been imprisoned in London for sums not exceeding forty shillings, and entailed upon his son (who, however, paid no heed to the injunction), the charge of continuing the same course.

In the course of this reign, and in the year 1499, the Earl of Warwick, the legitimate successor to the crown, after being kept a prisoner fifteen years, was beheaded on Tower Hill.

In this reign the naval and mercantile power of England first assumed prominence among the nations of Europe.

Sebastian Cabot, the son of a Bristol merchant, dis-

covered the coast of Newfoundland a few years before Columbus discovered America, or rather the Islands of the West Indies, and Portugese navigators laid open the eastern route to India by the Cape of Good Hope.

The title of Lord High Chancellor and the coin called a shilling were both creations of this reign.

Henry died of consumption at Richmond, in 1509, and was buried in the chapel attached to the Abbey of Westminster, which still retains his own name as its founder, being commonly called Henry VII.'s chapel.

MAIN POINTS.

Henry's claim to the crown. His marriage. The effect of it. His children. Margaret of Burgundy. Lambert Simnel. End of Simnel. Insurrection. Death of the Earl of Northumberland. Further plots of Margaret of Burgundy. Perkin Warbeck. His movements in the west of England. End of Warbeck. Character of Henry VII. Star Chamber. Progress of naval discovery. Death and burial of the king.

CHAPTER XXIII.

HENRY VIII. A.D. 1509—A.D. 1547.

HENRY VIII. was the second, but eldest surviving son of the late king. He was born at Greenwich in 1491; crowned, together with his queen, Catherine, at Westminster, in 1509; and reigned thirty-eight years.

His father's death was a matter of rejoicing to the people of England, and they hailed in the young prince, only eighteen years of age, much that was subject of congratulation. Handsome, manly, spirited, a little impatient perhaps, and inclined to be imperious—yet that was not unnatural in a high-spirited youth—and satisfying in his person the contending claims of York and Lancaster, possessed of immense treasure from his father, and coming to the throne in a time of internal peace and freedom from foreign wars, he seemed to be everything that a loyal people could desire in a sovereign. But he brought with him what the people knew nothing about, as it beat under

the coronation robes—a heart of avarice, violence, lust, and the most indomitable self-will.

He began his reign with what seemed to short-sighted observers an indication of a noble spirit. He had Empson and Dudley, his father's attorneys, tried for all sorts of possible and impossible misdemeanours, including treasonable designs upon the crown itself. They were held in utter detestation by the people, who were not sorry to hear of their execution. No plan of restitution of their ill-gotten extortions on the part of the king, however, reached the ears of the nation.

Soon after his accession, advised by his council, dissuaded by the primate, he celebrated his marriage with the infanta, Catherine of Arragon, and both were crowned in Westminster Abbey.

Four years afterwards, Henry found himself the declared enemy of France, and engaged in war with that country. Several causes had contributed to bring this about—the king's impatience of quiet while all Europe was in arms; the national dislike of the French; the recollection of England's former dominion in France; the persuasions of his father-in-law, the designing Ferdinand; and finally, the instigation of the pope, Julius II., to join the league of Cambrai, consisting of himself, the kingdom of Spain, and the republic of Venice, against the French king. War supplies were readily voted by the Parliament. The army was about to leave the English shores, but the wily Ferdinand recommended that, instead of Calais, the troops should go first to Fontarabia, whence they might enter Guienne, where adherents of the English cause were reported to remain. He even sent ships to transport the troops. But he made use of them merely as scarecrows, while he annexed the kingdom of Navarre; so that the Marquis of Dorset, the English general, deluded from the main purpose of the expedition, and losing his men from want and sickness, made the best of his way back to England.

Notwithstanding this failure, Henry still prosecuted his French war against Louis, especially as the pope, Leo X., who had succeeded Julius, had gained over the Emperor *Maximilian to the league*. The Scots had formed an alliance

with the French ; but Henry, little discouraged, determined to invade France, and was confirmed in his resolution by a minister who was ready to promote his inclinations in every way.

This was the famous Wolsey. He was at this time Dean of Lincoln and almoner to the king. He was reputed to be the son of a butcher at Ipswich, but had risen in his profession, and had been introduced at court by Fox, Bishop of Winchester. Fox and the Earl of Surrey, as treasurer, were the earliest candidates for Henry's favour after his accession. Wolsey had been tutor in the family of the Marquis of Dorset, whom Ferdinand had so befooled. He had been employed by Henry VII. in a secret negotiation for an intended marriage with Margaret of Savoy, the daughter of the Emperor Maximilian, and had earned the king's approval. He indulged the caprices and promoted the amusements of the king, who made him first the companion of his pleasures, then a member of his council, and lastly, the minister of his kingdom. Insatiable, ambitious, magnificent, clever, versatile, he seemed formed by nature to gain an ascendancy over others.

Meanwhile the French war had begun. Sir Edward Howard, the English admiral, with only two ships, endeavoured to cut six French galleys out of the harbour of Conquet, losing his life in the attempt. His ships retired, and the French pursued them as far as the Sussex coast, but were repulsed.

Henry crossed to Calais, and was joined by Maximilian, who, to gratify his vanity, served, an emperor under a king, receiving 100 crowns a day.

Hearing of the approach of the French horse, Henry ordered an advance across the Lis, and the French, in terror, turned to flight, so stimulating their horses as to gain for the battle the name of the Battle of the Spurs, as the only weapons of which any use seemed to be made by the enemy. Henry, at the head of 50,000 men, took to besieging the inconsiderable town of Terouenne, which soon surrendered. The same fate was experienced by Tournay, the administration of which, as its bishop had lately died, he bestowed upon his friend Wolsey, with full

enjoyment of the revenues; after which he returned to England, leaving some of his army in the country.

Henry's indifference to the Scotch invasion seemed justified by the event: James, King of Scotland, with an irregular army of 50,000 men, laid waste the banks of the Tweed. The Earl of Surrey, with half the number of forces marched to meet him. They met on the field of Flodden, near the Cheviot hills, and the Scots suffered a severe defeat; the more disastrous because they lost the flower of their nobility. The king himself is believed to have been slain; but a curious mystery attaches to the matter. A body resembling him was found by the English and sent in a coffin to London; but the Scots had a belief that it was a mistake, and that the king had found his way to the Holy Land, whence they looked and hoped for his return. Margaret, the queen, was appointed regent; she sued for peace, and Henry granted it to a queen and a sister.

As to France, circumstances were at hand which were destined altogether to reverse the hostile relationship in which the two kingdoms at this time stood. In 1514 Henry discovered that both Maximilian and Ferdinand had deserted his alliance for that of Louis, and were in favour of a marriage of Maximilian's son, the Archduke Charles, to a daughter of the French king, although the archduke was already affianced to Mary, Henry's sister. The Duke of Longueville happened at this time to be a prisoner in England, and Henry readily assented to the French duke's proposal of a peace with France, to be confirmed by the marriage of the Princess Mary to Louis, now a widower. The arrangements were all effected, but Louis died three months after his marriage. He was succeeded by his son-in-law, Francis, Duke of Angoulême, who had married his eldest daughter. The Princess Mary afterwards married Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, who was at the time a distinguished courtier at the French court.

Wolsey now rose rapidly higher and higher. He had been promoted to the See of York, with which he was allowed to hold those of Durham and Winchester. The pope made him a cardinal, and on the resignation of

Warham, Archbishop of Canterbury and chancellor, the great seal also was given to Wolsey. In this new capacity he acted with wisdom and impartiality.

It was through Wolsey that Francis regained Tournay. It was agreed that the dauphin and the Princess Mary should be betrothed, and that Tournay should be considered the dowry of the princess. In addition, Francis agreed to pay 12,000 livres to Wolsey, as an equivalent for his administration of the diocese of Tournay, and 600,000 crowns to the King of England in twelve yearly instalments.

Wolsey was now made legate by the pope, and it is sufficient to say of him that he had now reached the culminating point of his ambition ; unless, as Henry afterwards accused him, he aimed at the popedom, and that his magnificence and parade, and claims of secular and ecclesiastical jurisdiction knew no limits but the caprice of the king, whose character he studied and treated with consummate sagacity.

In 1519 the Emperor Maximilian died, and the imperial crown of Germany was open to competition ; both Francis and Henry were unsuccessful competitors, and Charles, by his election, found himself possessed, without any distinct qualification of his own, but by an accumulation of fortune, of a wider power than had ever been placed in the hands of any monarch. Their failure, perhaps, drew yet closer the bonds of alliance between Henry and Francis ; and Francis proposed a meeting of the two in the French dominions. Charles, apprehensive of consequences, conciliated Henry by paying him a visit in *his own* dominions, and gained the countenance of Wolsey by holding out the prospect of the papal tiara ; nor, in the event of Henry's hopes reverting to the ancient possessions of England in France, could any ally be more powerful than Charles, who was now Emperor of Germany by election, and by succession King of Castile, of Arragon, of Austria, of the Netherlands, and, by conquest, of Naples ; while the Spanish dominions beyond the Atlantic made him emperor of a new world.

On the very day that Charles took his leave of England,

Henry, with his queen and court, went over to Guisnes, a small town on the frontier of the department of Calais. Francis advanced to Ardres, a few miles distant, and they met in a field, called from the magnificence of the assemblage, the Field of the Cloth of Gold, situated between the two towns, and according to Wolsey's arrangement, who had been made master of the ceremonies, in British territory. Here the kings spent some days in tournaments and other festivities; and Charles still setting a high value on Wolsey's good graces, by way of ensuring them, instituted him for the present into the temporalities of the Sees of Badajoz and Valencia, in Castile.

Soon after Henry's return he was made umpire of the differences between Francis and Charles. He appointed Calais as the place of decision, and Wolsey and the pope's nuncio were to determine the question. Francis rejected the terms proposed, and Wolsey repaired to Bruges, where he met the emperor, and concluded on behalf of England and the pope an offensive alliance against Francis. England was to invade France in the following summer with 40,000 men, and the Princess Mary, the king's only child, who seemed in the way of succeeding next to the throne of England, was betrothed to the emperor.

The Duke of Buckingham was soon afterwards tried and executed for high treason, having incautiously expressed the possibility of succeeding to the crown in the event of Henry dying without issue. He was descended through the female side from Edward III.

The great Reformation was now working on the continent, and Henry, who had been educated a strict Roman Catholic, wrote a treatise, against the heresies of Luther, for which he was indebted certainly to Thomas Aquinas, and probably also to Wolsey. The acceptance of this book by Leo X., and his conferring of the title of Defender of the Faith upon Henry—a title still retained by the Protestant monarchs of England—were among the last acts of Leo. He died the same year, and was succeeded by Adrian VI, a Fleming, to the great mortification, no doubt, of Wolsey, and some embarrassment to the Emperor Charles, who had promised his interest to Wolsey, who was too im-

portant an ally to alienate or disappoint. Charles paid another visit to England, flattered the king and Wolsey, repeated his former intentions in favour of the latter, made the High Admiral, Earl of Surrey, admiral of his own fleet, and was himself made a Knight of the Garter.

Under his command, the English army landed at Calais. It accomplished nothing of importance. But in Scotland, which still favoured the French interests, Lord Dacre compelled the regent, Albany, to a humiliating truce. From that time the Scotch were too busy with troubles at home to give Henry any annoyance.

Henry was not in a condition to prosecute the war with France, from want of money. Already he had raised a heavy sum under the name of a "benevolence." Wolsey appeared with a large number of nobles and prelates before the Commons, and asked for £800,000. He was seconded by Sir Thomas More, the speaker, but the House would not vote more than half the sum. The cardinal appeared again, and proposed to discuss the question in the Commons, which, as contrary to their privileges, they would not permit.

The king allowed seven years to elapse before calling another Parliament; so displeased was he with the refusal of the Commons, who had, however, somewhat increased their first grant. He levied a new loan in ready money, equivalent to the sum which Parliament had made payable in four years; thus invading the rights of the people, and establishing yet more strongly a precedent for his successors, which produced, as we shall see, the most disastrous effects to the monarchy.

A second disappointment now fell upon Cardinal Wolsey. Adrian had died, and one of the family of the De Medicis had been elected to the papal chair, under the title of Clement VII. His inclinations now were averted from the emperor and given to Francis, who soon needed all the friends he could procure.

Charles, Duke of Bourbon, Constable of France, had revolted, and joined the emperor against Francis. The imperialists had entered France, and besieged Marseilles; but the French king drove them out of his dominions.

Not content with this advantage, he followed them into North Italy, and laid siege to Pavia. Here he was attacked and surrounded by his enemies, and after fighting with the utmost bravery was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner (1525). A terrible slaughter ensued of the French army, which was almost destroyed by the sword or the river.

Henry showed every inclination to turn the misfortunes of Francis to his own advantage. He proposed to the emperor a joint invasion of the kingdom—he entering from the north, and Charles from the south—that they should meet in Paris, and that Henry should be crowned King of France, while Charles was to receive the duchy of Burgundy. If he would espouse Henry's daughter, he might (such was the English king's suggestion) succeed himself to the throne of France, possibly to that of England also. But the emperor politely declined assistance in a matter in which he felt strong enough to act for himself, without being made a tool in the English king's hands; and this so mortified Henry, that he determined to abandon the German alliance, and once more to take up with the French. He engaged with the mother of Francis to procure his release, if it could be done on reasonable terms.

Meanwhile, Henry began to be anxious on the subject of the prospect of a war with Charles, and his own means for meeting it. He levied a tax on the ground of his prerogative, and mightily incensed the people thereby; but the money was raised, and expressions of popular indignation disregarded.

In 1526 Francis was set at liberty by a treaty formed at Madrid, the conditions being that he should cede Burgundy to the emperor, and meanwhile give his two sons as hostages for the performance of his promise; and that in the event of finding himself unable to substantiate the agreement, he should return to his confinement. To this Francis, while still in confinement, agreed; but as soon as he found himself at liberty, he determined to resist the extorted treaty to the utmost. He prepared for war with the emperor, and was supported by Henry.

The Constable, who commanded the imperialists in Italy,

unable to keep up his army, led it against Rome, which he sacked, and made Pope Clement his prisoner. Horror and indignation spread throughout the Catholics of Europe. A new treaty was concluded between the English and French kings against the Constable, and in the cause of the pope. Moreover, Henry was to abandon henceforth all claims to any portion of the French dominions, and in return for this concession was to receive for ever, for himself and his successors, the annual sum of 50,000 crowns.

And now we enter upon the extraordinary history of Henry's married life, and his treatment of his six wives.

After nearly twenty years of married life, the king woke up to conscientious doubts about his marriage with Catherine of Arragon, who had been his elder brother Arthur's wife. It is hard to see how far Henry really entertained these doubts, and how far they sprang from or were quickened by the fascinations of Anne Boleyn, one of the maids of honour, and the circumstances that his queen was six years older than himself; that her beauty had gone with her youth, and that she was subject to disease; by the apprehension also of the ill-consequences of having no male issue, which might leave his daughter Mary exposed to attacks on the part of some adventurous claimant of the Crown; and by the superstitious fear of lying under the curse of childlessness attached by the Mosaic law to those who should espouse their brothers' widows. Possibly mixed motives operated, and passion and doubt alternated to compass the same end. The natural graces and talent of Anne had been improved by her sojourn at the French court, with the king's sister, when she had espoused Louis XII.

Henry sent his secretary, Knight, to ask the advice of the pope. Clement was still a prisoner, and looked on Henry as his possible champion. So he was personally induced to favour his inclinations, and he made a verbal promise of a dispensation; but a French army soon afterwards entering Italy, the imperialists were compelled to release the pope from his confinement.

The pope was in a strait. He appointed Wolsey and Campeggio to inquire and report upon the case.

Charles promised Catherine, who was his aunt, every protection in his power, and urged upon the pope to cancel the commission. The legates held their court in London, and the king and queen were cited to appear. They both appeared, but Catherine, throwing herself at Henry's feet, protested against the constitution of the court, and retired. Wolsey and Campeggio conducted the trial, until the latter, for some frivolous pretext, prorogued the court. A few days afterwards, the king and queen received a summons to go for trial to Rome, before the pope himself. This was the doing of Charles, and had the effect of rousing Henry's anger against Wolsey. He stripped him of his chancellorship, and gave the great seal to Sir Thomas More—a man of the highest accomplishments and integrity. The king seized York Palace, in London, which had belonged to Wolsey, as Archbishop of York, and was afterwards known as Whitehall. His furniture and plate were taken, and himself commanded to retire to his country seat at Esher.

On the next meeting of Parliament, the lords voted an indictment of forty-four articles against the cardinal, of which the chief was, that contrary to the statute of Richard II., called *præmunire*, he had procured his appointment as legate. The cardinal did not survive his disgrace a year. He went to his cathedral city of York, where he was arrested for high treason by the Earl of Northumberland, and summoned to London. Here in all probability he would have been executed, but he died on the journey. Seized with dysentery, he was carried with difficulty to Leicester Abbey, and told the abbot and monks who had come to receive him with reverence, that he should lay his bones among them. To Sir William Kingston, Constable of the Tower, who had him in custody, he addressed his last words, “Had I but served God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have forsaken me in my grey hairs.”

In 1531, a new session of Parliament was held, and a convocation of the clergy with it. The attorney-general brought an indictment against the whole clerical body for having abetted by their obedience Wolsey's infraction of

the *præmunire*, and they were obliged to offer a sum equivalent to nearly 119,000*l.*, as the price of the royal pardon. They were compelled also to confess that the king was the Protector and Supreme Head of the Church and clergy of England; but this was weakened by the dexterous insertion by them of an expression which went far to neutralize the title, “*quantum per Christi legem licet*” (as far as Christ’s law allows). Here was a heavy blow aimed at the power of Rome in this country.

The next session passed a law against sending *annats* or first-fruits, that is, the first year’s income of bishops and archbishops, to the papal treasury, except so far as the king’s pleasure might modify it. Here was a rein thrown over the pope’s neck. It was also voted, that any censures of the pope flowing out of that law should be disregarded in England.

Foreseeing the coming disruption with Rome, Sir Thomas More, who was a zealous Catholic, resigned the great seal, and was succeeded by Sir Thomas Audley.

Meanwhile, Henry was more and more resolved to marry Anne Boleyn, whom he had created Marchioness of Pembroke. The next parliament passed an act forbidding all appeals to Rome in ecclesiastical suits. In the same year Catherine was divorced, and retired to Huntingdonshire, where she died in 1536, and was buried in the cathedral of Peterborough.

A famous person now appears upon the stage. Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, had succeeded Warham in the see. He had been a fellow of Jesus College at Cambridge, a man timorous yet sagacious. He had advised the reference of the case of the king to the universities of Europe. The king hearing of this exclaimed, in his rough style, that Cranmer had got the right sow by the ear. The case was so referred and decided. This was the making of Cranmer.

Being made Archbishop of Canterbury, he held a court at Dunstable in Bedfordshire, six miles from Ampthill, where Catherine resided. The queen refusing to appear, the archbishop pronounced sentence against the marriage with Catherine as invalid from the beginning. He after-

wards ratified that with Anne Boleyn, who was publicly crowned, and in the same year gave birth to her daughter, afterwards the renowned Elizabeth. The pope denounced the judgment of Cranmer, and declared Henry excommunicated.

Such a breach as this could never be healed, and from this time (1534) may be dated the separation of the English Church from the pope. Several Acts of Parliament followed, annulling his spiritual jurisdiction in England, placing in the king's hands the visitation of monasteries, and the appointment of bishops by *congé d'élier*, or in case of the refusal of the cathedral chapters, by letters patent from the king, with the recognition of convocations as convened under the king's authority. The matters of the divorce and marriage were confirmed. Moreover, the act was to be binding upon any individual called upon to swear to it, and the refusal to do so was to be counted misprision, that is, a minor treason, of which the penalty is forfeiture of property, of goods and chattels, and imprisonment for life.

The oath regarding the succession, as confined to the issue of the second marriage, which was now also imposed upon all subjects, was objected to by two remarkable personages—these were, Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and the ex-chancellor, Sir Thomas More. They were accordingly committed to the Tower. The title of Supreme Head of the Church recognised by convocation, was confirmed by Parliament, and, in short, all spiritual authority which before resided in the pope was transferred to the king, under pain of the charge of treason against all who declined assent to it. The king was a political Protestant, but held to the doctrines of the Catholic Church. The queen was inclined to favour the Reformers. Cromwell and Cranmer had the same leaning. The Duke of Norfolk and Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, were of the opposite side—they could not but acquiesce in the political changes, but they urged the king to punish and coerce in the matters of the ancient faith.

Tyndale's translation of the New Testament, published at Antwerp, was publicly burnt by the bishops at Cheap-

side. The consequence was, as usual in such proceedings, Tyndale made money, and published a new and better edition.

Meanwhile, the monks were most hostile to the king. They anticipated little protection now that they had been transferred to his royal care and patronage out of the hands of the pope, between whom and the regular clergy a special bond of union had always existed.

The holy Maid of Kent made her appearance in their favour. Elizabeth Barton, an hysterical enthusiast, declaimed against the new doctrines, and was countenanced by Masters, the vicar of her native parish of Aldington, and Bocking, Canon of Canterbury. Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, too, abetted her supposed inspirations. The Maid denounced the king as rejected of God, after the manner of King Saul. The matter made sufficient stir to attract the king's notice, and the Maid with her two clerical associates paid the penalty of their interference. Fisher was sent to prison, where he had been confined a year when the pope, Paul III., out of gratitude and admiration, sent him a cardinal's hat. This was more than the jealous king could tolerate; so Fisher was tried, condemned, and beheaded for high treason.

More was condemned and executed for the same offence. The execution of a bishop and a cardinal induced the pope to draw up a bull placing the kingdom under an interdict and deposing the king.

Catherine was now on her death-bed, and wrote an affectionate and forgiving letter to her husband, commanding her child to his care.

Next came the king's project for suppressing the monasteries—a selfish scheme, but one of which Wolsey himself had set an example, by suppressing some of the inferior religious houses, and funding their property for the benefit of his newly established College of Christ Church at Oxford. Cromwell was appointed vicar-general, with the power of associating with himself commissioners to inquire into the state of these houses. All such as possessed revenues below 200*l.* a year were suppressed, with all of the wealthier sort which were reported against (and their

number was considerable) on the ground of their immorality or disorder. By this act the king reaped a harvest of about 32,000*l.* a year, and chattels to the value of 100,000*l.* more.

In the great interests of justice an improvement was effected by taking the administration of the law out of the hands of the lords marchers of Wales, and subjecting the country to the jurisdiction of the king's courts.

The year 1536 witnessed another tragedy in the death of the queen. Anne gave birth to a son still-born. The same twofold influence of passion and superstition affected Henry as on the occasion of his former divorce. He felt as if under the displeasure of heaven at this disappointment of his earnest longing for a son; and he also had fallen in love with Jane Seymour, one of the maids of honour to the queen. Viscountess Rochfort, who was married to Anne's brother, inflamed the king's suspicions against her. She was committed to the Tower; and without any sufficient evidence, four gentlemen of the court, Norris, Smeton, Brereton, and Weston, were tried, condemned, and executed. Smeton confessed to the truth of the charge. Even her own brother, the Viscount Rochfort, was accused also, and being tried by a jury of peers, of which their uncle, the Duke of Norfolk, was president, the two were found guilty.

In addition to this, Henry was resolved to declare Anne's marriage void, on the ground that before she espoused the king she had been contracted to the Earl of Northumberland, then Lord Percy. Cranmer pronounced the marriage invalid, and nothing remained to the queen but to prepare for death. She sent an humble message of thanks to the king for the promotion he had bestowed upon her—protested her innocence, and died cheerfully. She even clasped her neck with her hands, declaring that it was too small to give the executioner much trouble.

Was Anne Boleyn guilty? It seems almost impossible to doubt it. It is a question between the facts of the trial and the subserviency of the judges. But whether innocent or guilty the tyrant married Jane Seymour three days after the execution. A new parliament was convened, *which declared his former marriage void and its issue ille-*

gitimate. The succession was settled on the issue of Jane Seymour or any subsequent wife ; and in the event of the king's dying childless, he was empowered to dispose of the crown by will or patent.

The dissolution of the monasteries was most unacceptable to the people. In days anterior to the institution of national poor laws the religious houses were the almoners of the poor. Insurrections were made in which the common people were abetted by the clergy. Aske, a gentleman of Doncaster, with others, headed an outbreak in the north, and several noblemen and gentlemen were executed.

In 1537 the queen gave birth to a son, to the great joy of Henry ; but she survived only a few days.

Henry now proceeded to lay hands on the larger monasteries. Many of the abbots and monks, hoping for better things, resigned. In less than two years all had passed into the king's hands. The shrine of St. Thomas, of Canterbury was not only pillaged but desecrated, and the relics of the martyr scattered to the winds ; the revenues of the monasteries, chantries, colleges, and hospitals confiscated on this second occasion amounted to 161,100*l.* The chief abbots and priors were pensioned, and six new bishoprics created—Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and Gloucester. Many of the conventional estates the king bestowed upon his favourites. As the regular clergy had held many livings, these passed into the hands of the Crown at the dissolution of the monasteries under which they were held, and so found their way, in many cases, by gift or sale, from the Crown into the hands of laymen.

The pope was, as might be expected, incensed to the uttermost. He solemnly delivered Henry's soul to the devil, and England to the invader. Cardinal Reginald Pole, inveighed against all the recent proceedings of Henry, as regarded his divorce and treatment of the Church. Several members of his family were executed for treason, including the Countess of Salisbury, the aged mother of the cardinal.

We have said that Henry was politically, not religiously,

a Protestant, or rather he seemed, while he gradually abandoned a portion of the Catholic belief, to retain all the more jealously, and insist all the more rigorously, on the remainder. He told his parliament that he was most anxious to establish unity of belief throughout his kingdom, and to root out heresies. The statute of the Six Articles was accordingly passed by the Parliament. These articles were:—1. The real presence of the body of Christ in the Eucharist; 2. The communion for the laity in one kind; 3. The irrevocability of vows of chastity; 4. Private masses; 5. The celibacy of the clergy; and 6. Auricular confession. The penalty of denial was burning. The Six Articles were most distasteful to Cranmer, who, among other doctrinal objections to the articles, entertained the practical one, that he was a married man. Mrs. Cranmer was dismissed. In this way did that servile Parliament surrender all its religious liberties into the king's hands.

Next came the most intolerable act that it was capable of passing. The Parliament gave to the king's proclamation, by a declaratory statute, the force of an Act of Parliament. Reciprocal accusations and seizures followed in abundance; but the king soon granted the unexpected boon, that every family in his dominions might be permitted to have a copy of the new Bible in the house.

Henry's fourth wife was Anne of Cleves, the daughter of the Duke of Cleves, a Protestant prince; her sister, Sibyl, was married to the Elector of Saxony, the head of the Protestant league. The king had seen a picture of her by Holbein, and Cromwell, being desirous of strengthening the Protestant cause in England, had proposed the match. But when she arrived at Rochester, the king, impatient to behold his new treasure, went privately to see her. Alas! little resemblance could he discern between the fair portrait and the heavy, homely face and figure of the Dutch lady, who could speak nothing but Dutch. But it was too late now to think of dissolving the marriage, though Henry would gladly have done so. To say nothing of the insult to herself and her family, which such a proceeding would have conveyed, the Emperor and Francis were now warm allies, and it seemed more than ever

necessary that the safety of England should be secured by connexion with the Protestant cause. Henry was terribly annoyed with Cromwell, who had brought about the match ; yet he concealed his annoyance as well as he could, and even made him Earl of Essex and Knight of the Garter.

But Cromwell's fall was at hand. He was obnoxious to the king for his matrimonial blunder ; to the nobility for his high offices and promotions notwithstanding the meanness of his birth ; and to the Catholics of all ranks, as the agent in the destruction of the monasteries. Even the Protestants, whom he favoured, considered him a time-server. His personal enemy, the Duke of Norfolk, obtained permission to arrest him for high treason ; he was thrown into the Tower and executed.

Meanwhile, measures were going on for divorcing Henry from Anne of Cleves. The convocation of clergy annulled the marriage, and the Parliament ratified it. On what grounds it is hard to see. A flimsy pretext was made of her former contract to the Marquis of Lorraine when she was a child. The king's wish was intimated to Anne. "The Flanders mare," as the king called her, seems in no way to have kicked at the proposal of a divorce, and readily accepted the terms of an arrangement, by which she was to rank as the king's sister, with a pension of 3000*l.* a year. She lived and died at Chelsea.

Henry's next wife was a Catholic, and the fact was hailed by the Catholics as a sort of triumph—a very worthless one it was in itself, but it led to certain practical consequences of importance to their party. The new queen was Catherine Howard, niece of the Duke of Norfolk, whose uncle, and Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, accordingly became the king's principal counsellors. The Six Articles were set in motion against all recusants, and the Catholic deniers of the royal supremacy suffered no less. So that the nation was in a dilemma ; either people were Protestants, in which case, denying the Six Articles, they were burnt, or they were Catholics, in which case, denying the royal supremacy, they were hanged.

The king seemed for a while charmed with his new consort, but he discovered that before her marriage she

had lived incontinently, and was also suspected of unfaithfulness to himself. The verdict of posterity seems to be that she was guilty. At any rate such was the verdict of her contemporaries. Two of her lovers were tried and executed. A bill of attainder for treason was passed against the queen and the Countess of Rochfort, as her abettor in her proceedings. They were both beheaded on Tower Hill, the queen with some degree of popular pity, not so the countess, who only suffered the fate which herself had brought upon Anne Boleyn.

At this time some fighting took place with the Scotch on the borders, under the Duke of Norfolk, which was no way remarkable, except for the death of the Scotch king, which occurred in consequence of disappointment at the defeat of his troops near Solway. He died of vexation and anxiety about his successor. Being told that his wife had given birth to a child, he asked whether it were a boy or girl; on being told that it was a girl, his answer was, "The Crown came with a woman and it will go with one."

This child was Mary, Queen of Scots. Upon the death of the Scotch king his nephew, Henry formed the design of uniting the kingdoms of England and Scotland by marrying his son Edward with Mary. But Scotland was still Catholic, and, under the influence of Cardinal Beaton, Henry's offer was declined.

The king shortly crossed to France with an army to invade the kingdom according to an agreement with the Emperor Charles, which he made out of jealousy of the Scotch alliance with France; but nothing important was effected. Henry and Charles did not satisfy each other, and the campaign broke up. Boulogne was taken by the English and held as a bad security for the French king's debt to Henry. Some skirmishing took place with the French fleet off the Isle of Wight. Foreign wars seemed now to be ended.

A little trouble remained, however, for the king in Scotland. Cardinal Beaton's party there had gained the ascendant over that of the Protestant Earl of Lennox, who had been compelled to lay down his arms and wait

for help from England. Henry despatched a fleet and army into Scotland, which ravaged the east coast, took Edinburgh, and returned to England. This was an advantage to Lennox ; but he was too weak to improve it. He took refuge in England, and Henry was glad, by concluding a peace with Scotland, to be rid of war altogether.

The remainder of the king's life was spent in quiet. He had married Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer. She was favourable to the reformed religion ; and so matters remained pretty evenly balanced, and the king had leisure to give to his favourite project, that of establishing uniformity of religious opinion throughout his dominions.

The Bible had been already translated into English. In 1544 the Litany of the Mass was ordered to be read in English, and in the following year a collection of English prayers for morning and evening service were to be used instead of the breviary. But the king's dogmatism was as rigid as ever, and his temper had become more irritable from disease. Anne Ascue and others, for discussing the doctrine of the Real Presence in a manner contrary to the royal sentiments, were burnt alive.

Articles were at one time drawn up against the queen herself, at the instigation of Gardiner and the bigoted Chancellor Wriothesley ; but she disarmed the king's disapproval by a well-concerted expression of humility, and a desire to learn rather than dictate to so great a doctor as himself. When the chancellor came the next day to convey her to the Tower, Henry dismissed him with the valedictory epithets of knave, fool, and beast.

The last objects of Henry's tyranny were the Duke of Norfolk, and his son the Earl of Surrey. He suspected the latter of aiming at the crown by a marriage with the Lady Mary. Surrey was an accomplished, soldierly, and courtly youth ; but the king was determined to extinguish all possibility of such issues. So the duke and the earl were sent to the Tower. The Earl of Surrey was executed. The duke's execution had been fixed for the day on which the king himself died ; and to this circumstance he owed *his life*.

Henry expired in the fifty-sixth year of his age, after

a reign of nearly thirty-eight years, in the presence of the Archbishop Cranmer, whom he had desired to see. He was a speechless and bloated mass of disease at the time, but retained his consciousness. Cranmer desired him to give some sign of dying in the faith of Christ. He squeezed the archbishop's hand and immediately expired.

MAIN POINTS.

Birth and marriage of Henry VIII. Favourable auspices of his reign. War with France. Its causes. Cardinal Wolsey. Battle of the Spurs. Scotch incursions. Peace with France. Motives to it. Rise of Wolsey. Negotiations with France. Competition for the Imperial Crown of Germany. Field of the Cloth of Gold. Alliance of England and Germany against France. Execution of the Duke of Buckingham. Beginnings of the Reformation. Defender of the Faith. Wolsey's disappointment of the Papedom. Conclusion of troubles with Scotland. Refusal of the Commons to grant Wolsey's request for money. Second disappointment of Wolsey. French revolt under the Constable of Bourbon. Battle of Pavia. Henry's overtures to the Emperor Charles. Liberation of Francis. Treaty of Madrid. Capture of the Pope by the Constable. Henry a pensioner of France. Henry's doubts as to his marriage. Anne Boleyn. Reference to the Pope. Wolsey and Campeggio. Part taken by the Emperor. Wolsey in despair, and indicted by the Parliament. Death of Wolsey. Indictment of all the clergy. Laws against Rome. Divorce and marriage of the King. Cranmer. Henry excommunicated. Further measures for ecclesiastical independence of Rome. Tyndale's translation of the New Testament. The Maid of Kent. Cardinal Fisher. Suppression of the monasteries. King's harvest of spoil. End of Anne Boleyn. King's marriage with Jane Seymour. Provisions for the succession. Outbreak of the people. Birth of a son to the king. Death of Jane Seymour. Further spoliations of the Church. Anger of the Pope. Cardinal Pole. Execution of the Countess of Salisbury. Statute of Six Articles. Mrs. Cranmer. Servility of Parliament. Anne of Cleves. King's marriage and disappointment. The new queen disposed of. King's marriage with Catherine Howard. Accusation and execution of Catherine and the Countess of Rochfort. Mary, Queen of Scots. English invasion of France. Risings in Scotland. Beaton and Lennox. King's marriage with Catherine Parr. Further changes in the Liturgy. Imprisonment of the Duke of Norfolk and the Earl of Surrey. Execution of the latter. Death of the King.

CHAPTER XXIV.

EDWARD VI. A.D. 1547—A.D. 1553.

EDWARD VI. succeeded his father by rightful succession, and also by will confirmed by Act of Parliament.

The will was an amended one, in which, having declared his daughters Mary, by Catherine of Arragon, and Elizabeth, by Anne Boleyn, illegitimate, Henry again, of his own mere authority, legitimatized them. In the event of no issue from these, the descent was to go to Henry's younger sister, Mary, Queen of France, to the exclusion of the elder sister, Margaret of Scotland.

Sixteen persons had been chosen as regents by the late king, of whom the Duke of Somerset, brother of Jane Seymour, and the king's uncle, was elected president, with the title of Protector of the Realm and Guardian of the King.

Edward VI. was born at Hampton Court in 1537, crowned at Westminster when he was ten years old, and reigned six years.

He was never married, though his father, as we have seen, desired an alliance with Mary, Queen of Scots. The protector endeavoured to carry out the king's wishes in this respect, nor was Edward averse to a marriage with Mary. But Scotch feeling was strong against the match, and Somerset led an army of 18,000 men into Scotland.

The Regent Arran met him at Pinkie, near Musselburgh, but was defeated. News of plots against him compelled the protector to return to England.

It was a strange way of procuring a bride, to enter her kingdom with an army! No wonder the Earl of Huntly declared, "That though he disliked not the match, he hated the manner of wooing." The young Queen of Scots was sent for greater safety to France.

The completion of the Reformation was the great event of this reign. The protector was a Protestant, and took *cure that none but those of the reformed faith should have access to the king.* Archbishop Cranmer took an active

part in the Reformation, and was strenuously aided by Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, Bishop of Worcester. The external peculiarities of the ancient religion were largely done away. Statues and pictures of saints were destroyed. Twelve homilies, or sermons, were appointed to be read in the churches. The Latin mass was abolished, and replaced by an English liturgy; and articles of religion were drawn up to the number of forty-two, to be an expression of the characteristic tenets of the Church.

The protector's rule was, in some respects, most advantageous to the country. By his influence most of the arbitrary statutes of the preceding reign were repealed; the definition of treason was taken anew from the statute of Edward III.; those laws were repealed which had extended the crime of felony, and those against Lollardism or heresy; the Six Articles were also repealed; the monstrous principle was cancelled that the royal proclamations should have the force of laws.

In the ceremonial of religion a great change was made, as in the omission of candles, ashes, palms, images, and the like; private masses were abolished by law, and a new Communion service composed, in which auricular confession no longer appeared as compulsory.

The protector now found a rival in his own brother, Admiral Lord Seymour, whom the queen dowager had married. After this marriage Catherine Parr died in childbed, and Lord Seymour then paid his addresses to the Princess Elizabeth, not yet sixteen years of age.

The Duke of Somerset, finding his own authority in jeopardy by the intrigues of his brother, and falling into a quarrel with him, which was maliciously fomented by the Earl of Warwick, committed him to the Tower. The Parliament passed a bill of attainder against him, and he was executed for treason.

The state of the Church occupied the attention of the Parliament this session. Uniformity of rites and ceremonies was enacted in all the churches, and the clergy were no longer to be bound to celibacy.

But the Protestants had not yet learnt toleration. *Anabaptists, heretics, and contemners of the new book of*

Common Prayer were to be hunted and punished by an ecclesiastical commission, under the presidency of the primate. Joan Bocker, otherwise called Joan of Kent, was committed to the flames, and a Dutchman, named Van Paris, received the same punishment for Arianism—a denial of the absolute deity of Christ.

Insurrections now took place in several parts of England. They were the effect of reaction, from one or two separate causes. The lay occupants of the Church lands proved grasping landlords, and in many cases absentees. Commons, to the great privation of the poor, were enclosed. The coin had been debased by Henry VIII., and afterwards by the protector; and the influx of gold from South America had raised the price of provisions and other commodities. 10,000 men rose in Devonshire. They desired a return to the old institutions and the old religion. After the disturbance had been put down by Lord Russell, many were executed.

In Norfolk the insurgents, to the number of 6000, were headed by Ket, a tanner. Lord Warwick fell upon them, destroyed them to the number of 2000, and hanged Ket at Norwich. These disturbances gave rise to the appointment of Lords Lieutenant of counties.

The protector's fall was approaching. He had procured for himself a patent of royalty, and had become obnoxious by his imperiousness and rapacity. He built for himself Somerset House, in the Strand, out of the materials and revenues of sundry churches. The council determined to act independently of him. Somerset found that none aided him but Cranmer; and, utterly disheartened, he asked forgiveness of his enemies. They met his request by sending him to the Tower, with the afterwards distinguished Cecil, Lord Burleigh. He confessed all the articles brought against him, and Parliament deprived him of all his offices, and fined him 2000*l.* a year. This was afterwards remitted by the king, and Somerset himself even went back to the council; but the Roman Catholics augured great things from Somerset's fall. In these hopes they were disappointed; for Warwick, who succeeded him in the presidency of the council, was a determined supporter of the Reformation.

tion, and contrived to deprive Gardiner of his bishopric, after an imprisonment of two years.

France and Scotland were still in hostile alliance against England, and Warwick could not find the necessary funds for war. Henry II. offered 400,000 crowns for the restitution of Boulogne, and the English government were glad to accept the terms, and include Scotland in the treaty of peace.

Of the three children of Henry VIII. Edward was strongly inclined to the Protestants; his sister Mary never could be persuaded to tolerate them; but the tide of religious reform had set in too strongly to be retarded at present, though we shall see what the effects of Mary's sentiments amounted to on her accession to the throne. It was at this time that the new Prayer Book was issued, and the articles of religion reduced to thirty-nine.

The ambition of Warwick was not satisfied with his present rank, influence, and wealth. The title of Earl of Northumberland was at this time extinct, by the death of the late earl, and the attainer of the heir to the estate. The Percy estates being vested in the Crown, Warwick procured for himself a grant of them, with the title of Duke of Northumberland. Still not satisfied, he determined on the ruin of Somerset, who alone seemed to stand in his way to the position of first and greatest subject.

Somerset was accused of high treason and felony; he was acquitted of the former charge, but found guilty of the latter. He was executed on Tower Hill amid crowds of spectators who sympathized with his fate; for his chief faults were deficiency of talent, sagacity, and resolution, rather than an evil disposition. He was surrounded by intriguers and enemies, whom he had not sufficient force of character to disarm.

Northumberland's ambition was insatiable. He now aimed at bringing the Crown into his own family. He persuaded the king, whose health was rapidly declining, that it was his duty to declare his two sisters illegitimate; that Mary, or the Queen of Scots, would bring back the ancient religion; and that Elizabeth, though not subject to *this objection*, could hardly succeed over the head of her

elder sister ; then the next to the throne would be the Marchioness of Dorset, elder daughter of the French queen and the Duke of Suffolk ; that the heir of the marchioness was Lady Jane Grey, in every way personally qualified for the crown, which Edward, indeed, might, if he felt so inclined, leave to her by patent.

The next step in this scheme was to raise the Marquis of Dorset to the title of Duke of Suffolk, which was now extinct, and to marry Lady Jane Grey to the Duke of Northumberland's fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley.

Edward, in his last moments, languidly gave his consent. The judges hesitated to draw the necessary deed, but the threats and promises of Northumberland, that they should be held safe from all evil consequences, prevailed.

The young king expired at Greenwich in 1553, of a consumption, in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign. His qualities, which had made his reign a matter of hope for his people, were remembered with affection after death.

MAIN POINTS.

Parentage of Edward VI. Will of the late King. Regency. Proposed marriage with Mary, Queen of Scots. Invasion of Scotland. Duke of Somerset Protector. Progress of the Reformation in the English Church. Liberality of the Protector. Diminution of the Royal powers. Execution of Lord Seymour, the Protector's brother. Church statutes. Repeal of the law enforcing clerical celibacy. Joan of Kent. Insurrections and their causes. Fall of the Protector. Succeeded by the Earl of Warwick. Treaty of peace with France and Scotland. Religious tendencies of Edward and his sister Mary. A new Prayer Book. Thirty-nine articles of religion. Execution of Somerset. Warwick's ambition. His plot for Lady Jane Grey. Death of the young king.

CHAPTER XXV.

MARY I. A.D. 1553—A.D. 1558.

On the death of the young king, Lady Jane Grey was at once proclaimed queen, by order of Northumberland.

There was much in the character of Lady Jane which might have been expected to make her acceptable to the people. She was only sixteen years of age, beautiful, good, and very highly accomplished. She had been taught Greek and Latin with the late king, and could read Plato. She was also inclined to the Protestant religion. But she was gentle and loved retirement, and the news of her proclamation filled her with melancholy. She only consented to be queen in compliance with the earnest entreaties of her father-in-law, the Duke of Northumberland, and her husband. But it was not destined that she should come to the throne. The people received the proclamation of her name with indifference, and even contempt.

On the other hand, in spite of her religion as a Roman Catholic, the claims of the Princess Mary were well received. From Suffolk she wrote letters to the council and to the principal nobility, calling upon them to support her rightful position. The people of Suffolk rose in arms in her favour. Northumberland led an army against her, which he could not augment beyond 6000 men, while the supporters of Mary increased daily.

The Duke of Northumberland was arrested, together with the Duke of Suffolk, Lady Jane, and her husband, Lord Guildford Dudley. Northumberland was at once executed; the rest were for the present spared.

Mary was now in her thirty-seventh year, of a somewhat moody disposition, which had naturally been aggravated by her mother's disgrace and her own, and the national hostility to the religion of which she was a devoted follower. The restoration of that religion was the great work of her heart and object of her life. The earliest acts of her reign were the release and restoration of the deprived or imprisoned Catholic nobles and prelates. The Bishops Gardiner and Bonner were restored to their sees, and the Duke of Norfolk liberated from his confinement in the Tower, to which he had been consigned by Henry VIII., and where he lay under sentence of death.

The religious laws of Edward VI. were repealed. Cranmer, with Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, Bishop of Worcester, and others, were sent to prison.

Mary formed an alliance with the Catholic power of Spain, and became the wife of Philip, son of the Emperor Charles, who afterwards succeeded to the Spanish crown as Philip II. She was devotedly attached to Philip, who, however, did not return her affection. She was jealous, moody, and eleven years older than her husband. They were married with great state at Winchester in 1554, by Gardiner, the bishop, Mary's favourite, whence they proceeded through London to take up their residence at Windsor. Philip won no hearts in England. His Spanish ceremoniousness and reserve estranged the affections of the English, and he remained but a short time in England, for which he in turn felt no interest or liking.

From the first, Cranmer had little reason to expect consideration, but he had provoked the queen by a letter which he had published in his own defence, and in reply to a report which had become current, that he was ready to officiate in the Latin service. He spoke of some matters of the Catholic religion as the invention of the devil, and of others as wicked blasphemies. For these expressions he had been sent to prison. Sentence of high treason was passed against him, but he lived to fall in a more cruel way than by the axe. Nothing could exceed the subserviency of the Parliament, which ratified every wish of Mary in the matter of the public recognition and establishment of her religion.

A conspiracy had been formed to resist the accession of Mary to the throne, and in favour of Lady Jane Grey. The chief agents in the insurrection were Sir Thomas Wyatt and Sir Peter Carew. Tumultuously, Wyatt forced himself into London, but was seized by Sir Maurice Berkeley at Temple Bar. Sixty or seventy persons suffered death for this rebellion. Four hundred more, with ropes round their necks, were made to kneel before the queen for pardon. Sir Thomas Wyatt was condemned and executed.

A few months before the arrival of Philip in England, the Duke of Suffolk, the Lady Jane Grey and her husband, were executed.

Cardinal Pole, who had gone abroad in Henry VIII.'s

reign, (being attainted of high treason,) returned to England with the powers of Legate of the Apostolic See. The servile Parliament voted an address to Philip and Mary, acknowledging their guilt in departing from the true religion. In the name of the pope, the legate absolved the kingdom, and received it once more into the bosom of the Church. The Catholic clergy were reinstated in their offices, but their wealth had departed.

Pole and Gardiner were at issue as to the treatment of heretics, whom the statutes of the reign had made amenable to capital punishment. The former was a man of benevolence, the latter a cruel bigot. The policy of Gardiner prevailed, and scenes of horror filled the country.

In 1555, Rogers, Prebendary of St. Paul's; Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester; Taylor, rector of Hadleigh, and others, were condemned to be burnt alive: Bonner, the Romish Bishop of London, was a violent instigator of Gardiner in this work of bloody persecution.

The history of England at this time is a wretched narrative of burning, imprisonment, fine, and confiscation, for the sake and in the name of the holy and peaceful religion of Christ. The Bishops Ridley and Latimer were burnt side by side at Oxford. "Be of good cheer, brother," said Latimer, "we shall this day kindle such a torch in England as shall never be put out."

The chief scene of these tragedies was Smithfield, in London. Besides those who suffered death, more than a thousand clergymen were driven from their churches, and many escaped to the Continent, and found their way to Frankfort and Geneva. Among these were John Knox, the Reformer of Scotland; Fox, who wrote the Book of Martyrs; and Coverdale, who, after Tyndale, completed the English Bible.

In the following year, Archbishop Cranmer was led from his prison to the stake. The queen hated him personally for the part he had taken against her mother. He had been tempted by that strong love of life which the Creator has implanted in us all, to sign a recantation of his opinions, and to recognise the articles of the pope's supremacy and the Real Presence. But the wily govern-

ment had only meant to lay a trap for him, that his disgrace might be the greater. They never meant to spare his life. So he was taken to the place of execution ; and nobly did he die, expressing his sorrow for the weakness which had led him to make his recantation of Protestant doctrines ; and exclaiming, " this unworthy hand," he held it firmly in the fire till it was consumed. When the flames seized his body, he seemed to suffer little or no pain. His heart was found whole among the ashes. His martyrdom took place at Oxford.

He was succeeded in his office of Archbishop of Canterbury by Cardinal Pole.

Mary's last days were most unhappy. Deserted by her husband whom she fondly loved, disappointed of the hope of offspring, and falling into bad health, she became more and more morose in disposition. But her constancy to her husband and her religion remained with her to the last. The former was engaged in war with France, and desired the assistance of England. Mary had every desire to accede to his wishes, but Cardinal Pole was strongly opposed to her. However, Mary had set her heart upon it, and contrived to send 10,000 men with the Earl of Pembroke, to join the Spanish army in Flanders, which was commanded by Philibert, Duke of Savoy, one of the greatest generals of the age. They gained a great victory over the French at St. Quentin, which might have led to the acquisition of the whole kingdom, had Philip been sufficiently resolute to advance and seize Paris, as he might have done.

In the following winter the English lost Calais, their only remaining possession in France. It was wrested from them by the Duke of Guise, called Balafré, after they had held it for more than 200 years from the time of Edward III. The disgrace of this loss, and the dissatisfaction of the people at such a termination to a war which had been entered upon for the sake of the queen's foreign interests and her unpopular husband Philip, took such effect upon Mary, that she said the word Calais would be found upon her heart when she died.

Her death occurred the next year. She had been

long declining, and fell into a dropsy; she mistook the nature of her illness, and increased the malady by improper treatment.

The character of Mary was one of which the history is the best illustration. She had, as all characters have, some redeeming points. In her case these were sincerity, zeal, a conscientious determination to think and act aright, according to the light which was in her; but this light was little better than the darkest superstition and prejudice.

MAIN POINTS.

Proclamation of Lady Jane Grey as queen. Her interesting character. Preference of the people for Mary. Northumberland's opposition to Mary. His execution. Mary's religion. Reversal of the affairs of the Church and religion. Her marriage. Character of her husband. Conspiracy against Mary. Execution of Sir Thomas Wyatt. Further executions. Return of Cardinal Pole. Servility of the Parliament. Burnings for religion. Escape of some to the Continent. Recantation and execution of Cranmer. Mary's deserted state. She sends assistance to her husband in his war with France. Victory of St. Quentin. Loss of Calais. Death of the Queen.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ELIZABETH. A.D. 1558—A.D. 1603.

GREAT were the rejoicings when Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. and the Protestant Anne Boleyn, was proclaimed queen. Queen Mary, her half-sister, had kept her a sort of state prisoner at Hatfield House. On her arrival in London, all classes of citizens united to welcome her on her accession.

Philip, who hoped through Elizabeth to gain dominion over England, offered her marriage, which she courteously declined. She knew the repugnance with which the English people would regard the match with a foreigner and a Catholic. Moreover, such a marriage would have been a practical acknowledgment of her own illegitimacy, for Elizabeth stood in the same relationship to Philip of Spain, as Henry VIII. had stood to Catherine of Arragon.

If, then, such a marriage were lawful, there could have been no ground for her father's divorce from Catherine and his marriage with Anne Boleyn, who was Elizabeth's mother.

The queen proceeded soon after her accession to that which was the great aim of her reign, the establishment of the Reformed religion. In this, however, she acted with great caution. She retained the councillors of her sister, but added two of her own, Sir Nicolas Bacon, whom she made Lord Keeper, and Sir William Cecil, who afterwards became Lord Burleigh. She recalled those who had been banished, and liberated those who had been imprisoned for their religious opinions. The Litany, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Gospel, were to be recited in English. The churches were to follow the mode of worship adopted in the queen's chapel, and there she soon discontinued the elevation of the Host. Great was the distress and indignation of the bishops, and it was with difficulty that one of them, the Bishop of Carlisle, could be persuaded to perform the ceremony of the queen's coronation.

The Parliament which met soon after the accession, confirmed the queen in her throne. Tenthys and first-fruits, which had been given to the pope in the late reign, were restored to the queen, and the supremacy of the Crown in things ecclesiastical was again established. This power the queen was authorized to exercise by Commission, which gave rise to the Court of High Commission. A graduated scale of penalties, forfeiture of goods and chattels, *præmunire*, and the penalty of treason, were enacted to ensure obedience to this law.

The religious laws of Edward were restored, and any minister using any other form of worship than the established Liturgy, was to forfeit his goods and chattels, and to be imprisoned for a year or for life, according as his might be the first, second, or third offence. The bishops, with the exception of the Bishop of Llandaff, had all so actively aided the late queen to bring in the old *religion*, that they felt themselves bound to refuse the *oath of the royal supremacy*, and were accordingly

degraded from their sees by the Court of High Commission. About 180 only of the clergy out of 10,000, resigned their livings. Parker was made Archbishop of Canterbury in the room of Cardinal Pole, who was now dead.

The House of Commons at the close of the session, respectfully but strongly urged upon the queen to marry. She received the address graciously, but told them that she desired no renewal of such suggestions, as she coveted no fairer remembrance than that of having “lived and died a maiden queen.”

Negotiations for a peace with France, which had been begun in the late reign, were now concluded. Calais was, by promise of the French king, to be restored after eight years, but the stipulation was looked upon from the first as unmeaning. A peace with Scotland, which had long been in the French alliance, followed as a matter of course. But this peace was soon to be neutralized by private causes. Mary Queen of Scots, the next heir to the throne, had married the Dauphin of France, and the king his father had requested that they would assume on all occasions the arms, style, and title of king and queen of England. Elizabeth could never forgive this, and conceived a violent jealousy of the Scottish queen.

Soon Henry II. died, having been accidentally hurt at a tournament at Paris; and the Scotch, who were violent opponents of Queen Mary's religion, and had established an independent “congregation,” as they termed it, and were abetted by John Knox, who had returned from Geneva, where he had imbibed all the principles of Calvin, determined, if possible, to displace the queen-dowager from the regency, and for that purpose asked the assistance of Elizabeth. The Queen of England hated Knox, but by the advice of Cecil sent succour to the congregation. Her fleet appeared in the Forth, and with the assistance of the Scotch laid siege to Leith, the object being to compel the French to evacuate the kingdom. They were shut up in Leith, and a treaty was made with ambassadors sent over from France, to the effect that the French should quit Scotland, and that the king and queen of France should

desist from bearing the titles of king and queen of England. Laws were now passed in Scotland, abolishing the mass and the jurisdiction of the pope, and the Presbyterian form of church government was established, in which, instead of bishops, certain superior presbyters were acknowledged, with the title of superintendents.

The French design against the Crown of England which had been concerted by the ambition of the house of Guise was not extinguished. The Duke of Guise, however, lost much power by the sudden death of the king, Francis II. Catherine de Medicis, the queen-mother, was appointed regent to her son, Charles IX., not yet of age.

It was now the turn of Catherine to retaliate the slights which she had received during the reign of Francis; and Mary's sojourn in France was made so unpleasant to her, that she was compelled with bitter regret to leave it. She landed at Leith in 1561. She was now nineteen, and her grace, beauty, affability, and talent won all hearts. But she was a Roman Catholic, an unpardonable sin in the eyes of Knox and his disciples. She was abused for her religion and curbed in all her amusements, and remembered tearfully the fair France which she so loved.

Elizabeth was energetic in her endeavours to advance the strength and prosperity of her kingdom. To pay off the debts of the crown, to regulate the currency, which had been much debased, to fortify the frontiers of her kingdom by land and sea, and to develope the use of gunpowder and artillery, were among the objects to which her attention was actively given.

Many were the offers of marriage that she received from foreign princes, but if she entertained any preference, it seemed to be for Lord Robert Dudley, a younger son of the late Duke of Northumberland.

The Reformation progressed in France. The Constable Montmorency and the Duke of Guise entered into a combination against the Queen Regent, and Catherine sought support from the French Huguenots or Protestants. A civil war ensued. The Huguenots assembled their forces *under Condé and Coligny*. Condé applied to Elizabeth for assistance, and offered to put Havre into her posse-

sion. Guise and Montmorency had seized the king's person, and so compelled the Queen Regent to join their side. Elizabeth embraced the proposal of Condé, and landed an army which took possession of Havre, but the ill fortune of the principal leaders made both parties anxious for peace.

Condé and Montmorency were both taken prisoners, and the Duke of Guise was assassinated. The two parties in France made a treaty, but left Elizabeth out of their arrangements. Under such circumstances, Elizabeth refused to surrender Havre, and sent orders to the Earl of Warwick, who commanded the garrison, to hold it out if necessary against the French power. But the enemy was already within the walls. A plague broke out among the forces, which compelled the earl to capitulate. He returned to England, and his army brought the plague with them. About 20,000 persons died, and, for different reasons, Elizabeth and Catherine were glad of peace.

In 1563 the Convocation established the Thirty-nine Articles of religion in their present form.

The jealousy of Elizabeth against Mary, notwithstanding the external courtesy which seemed to exist between them, was incurable. She could not tolerate Mary's connexion with the house of Guise, and she advised her to marry Lord Robert Dudley, whom she had created, Earl of Leicester, a man of handsome exterior and courtly address.

But Leicester was a dark and designing man. He aspired, not from love, but ambition, to Elizabeth's hand, and was believed to have murdered his own wife to forward the purpose. He had no taste for the proposed marriage with the Queen of Scots. Shifts and evasions ensued which seemed to show that neither the queen nor any one else of the party was in earnest with regard to this match. The matter was brought to a close by Mary's own councillors, who had negotiated a marriage for her with Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lenox. On hearing of this marriage Elizabeth was furious. She ordered Darnley to return immediately to England. She shut up the Countess of Lenox and her son in the Tower, and seized the Lenox estates in England. It must have been

strong jealousy, a feeling engrained in Elizabeth's disposition, that led her to behave with such irritation in a case in which she had not been personally aggrieved.

The marriage, however, was celebrated (1565), though the Scotch people generally disliked a match in which both parties were obnoxious on the ground of religion, Mary for being openly a Papist, and Darnley one in disguise.

The Earl of Murray, Mary's half-brother, an illegitimate son of James V., attempted a rebellion, in which he was secretly abetted by Elizabeth, but the project was not popular, and the appearance of the king and queen was sufficient to disarm the rebels, and cause them to fly to England for shelter.

Mary had been captivated by Darnley's person, but she found that the handsome man was a mere fool, or rather a vicious fool. Her manner, perhaps her sentiments, underwent a change, and Darnley was at a loss to account for it. He vented his indignation on any who could be supposed to have caused it.

One David Rizzio, a Piedmontese, of mean birth, had been taken, somewhat imprudently, into Mary's counsels, and Darnley determined upon his destruction. One evening, as the queen, who was near her confinement, was seated at supper with Rizzio and some of the ladies of her court, the king entered with some of his friends, who, dragging Rizzio from Mary's protection, stabbed him to death.

Darnley soon afterwards met his death. He was asleep in a small house, called Kirkfield, near Edinburgh, when it was blown up by gunpowder, and he perished.

A child had been born of this marriage of Mary and Darnley, who afterwards became James I. of England.

The queen's person was, soon after Darnley's death, seized by the Earl of Bothwell, a man of infamous character, who is supposed to have instigated and abetted Mary in Darnley's destruction. To him she was married; first privately, according to the rites of the Roman Catholic Church, and afterwards, (in the vain hope of *ciliating public opinion*,) by a Protestant bishop of Orkney.

Such proceedings roused the displeasure of the Scotch nation, and the Presbyterian teachers were not slow to avail themselves of every opportunity of stirring up the people against her. The Lords Morton and Murray headed the malcontents. Finding that her own troops were disheartened in her cause, she gave herself up, and was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, where she was compelled to sign an abdication of her kingdom in favour of her son. Bothwell had escaped to Denmark. Murray was made regent. From Lochleven Castle Mary escaped, by the assistance of George Douglas, a young gentleman of the neighbourhood. She reached Hamilton, and an enthusiastic army of 6000 men was in a few days at her disposal.

The Regent Murray met her with an inferior force, and gained the victory, at Langside, near Glasgow. Mary, in a fishing boat, escaped to a place called Workington, about thirty miles from Carlisle, whence she sent a messenger to Elizabeth to say that she desired to place herself under the protection of the Queen of England.

Elizabeth was in a strait. She determined to act on Cecil's advice, which was to bring Mary to trial. She was told that she must explain her husband's murder before the queen would receive her.

Mary, in grief and consternation, expressed her readiness to vindicate herself. The queen had her kept at Bolton Hall, in Yorkshire, while the Bishop of Ross, with eight commissioners, met her own delegates at York to discuss the conduct of Mary. The conferences lasted some months, and nothing seems to have been clearly established. Elizabeth professed herself far from satisfied, and placed Mary under the keeping of the Earl of Shrewsbury, who had charge of her for sixteen years. The Roman Catholics were strong in her cause, and the Duke of Norfolk, then head of their party, proposed to her to effect her escape, and to place her on the throne of England, if she would consent to marry him. Mary gladly caught at the proposal, in the hope of liberty, if she could obtain a divorce from her marriage with Bothwell. The plan was, of course, not long in reaching the ears of Elizabeth, and immediately alienated any good will she may have entertained towards

her. The Duke of Norfolk was committed to the Tower, but released on his promise to break off all correspondence with Mary. This promise he did not keep. He had entrusted some money and a letter from the queen to the hands of a confidential servant, Banister, who was to carry them to Scotland to some of her supporters there. The duke's parcel was taken to Lord Burleigh by one into whose hands it had fallen, and who knew nothing of the plot. On the discovery of this second attempt, Norfolk was tried, condemned, and beheaded, in 1572.

Of all these troubles and difficulties Mary was the cause. So incensed was the Parliament against her that they applied strongly to the queen for Mary's trial and execution. The queen might, had she entertained determined ill-will against Mary, have now proceeded to extremities against her. It is certainly to her credit that she refrained from so doing, and sent to the Commons to say that this expression of their feeling was enough, and that at present she wished no further interference in the matter of the Queen of Scots.

Soon followed the terrible massacre (in 1572) of the Protestants of Paris, on St. Bartholomew's-day. The Admiral Coligny, with about 500 noblemen and 10,000 other persons of inferior rank, were massacred on that day. The French king, Charles, felt that his name would become a byword through Europe. He avowed that the Huguenots had conspired against his life and person, and that this business had been a measure of precaution and compulsion. He ordered Fenelon, his ambassador in England, to give this explanation to the queen. She accepted the apology, and even allowed the negotiations of her marriage with the Duke of Alençon, the king's brother, to be renewed. She had already entered into similar negotiations respecting the Duke of Anjou, which had been broken off.

The massacre of St. Bartholomew roused the indignation of the English people. They volunteered an army to invade France to show their resentment of it; while *Elizabeth* soon discovered that, after all, the Huguenots were her most hopeful resource. They grew rapidly in

number and power, and the King of France died. The crown devolved on his brother, the Duke of Anjou, under the name of Henry III.

The affairs of the Netherlands were as much disturbed as those of France. In 1572 Holland and Zealand determined, if possible, to throw off the yoke of Spain and the terrible Duke of Alva. The exiled Prince of Orange headed the insurgents, and became the founder of the Dutch greatness. The Hollanders would have made Elizabeth queen of their country, but she was afraid of Spain. But some years afterwards, finding that the Dutch seemed more and more able to take care of themselves, she professed herself their ally, in 1577. She stipulated to assist them with 5000 foot and 1000 horse, and to lend them 100,000*l.*, which they were to repay within the year.

Philip of Spain, Elizabeth's rejected suitor, now more than ever aggrieved by her countenance of his rebellious subjects in Holland, set to work upon reprisals. He sent a body of troops into Ireland, under the professed sanction of the pope, to stir up a rebellion. When the English ambassador made complaints at the Spanish Court, he was answered by a plea which first brought a great name into history.

Francis Drake, he said, an audacious seaman, had terribly molested the Spaniards in the New World. Two years before this, Drake had set sail, with Elizabeth's knowledge and sanction, with a little fleet of four ships and a pinnace, and 164 sailors. He passed the straits of Magellan into the Pacific, and having made some great prizes of the Spanish ships, tried to get home by some passage which he thought might be found north of the Isthmus of Panama. It is hardly necessary to say that he found no such passage. He resolved to return westwards, and came home by the Cape of Good Hope. It was a noble deed of naval survey, and Drake's name appeared as the first man who had sailed round the globe, for Magellan, whose ship had made the same voyage, died in the course of it.

Elizabeth upheld Drake, and patronized him personally, in spite of suggestions that he ought to be given up to the Spaniards. She knighted him and dined at Deptford on

board the ship that had so gallantly borne him round the world.

The Duke of Alençon, now created Duke of Anjou, had not relinquished his hope of marrying Elizabeth. Encouraged by the queen's demeanour, he even came to England to see her, but weeks passed in negotiations. The queen could not summon resolution to marry, and the duke left the kingdom.

The attention of the Government was drawn to the rumour of several conspiracies, with which the name of the Queen of Scots was always associated. A voluntary association formed to defend the person of the sovereign, was recognised by Parliament. Jesuits and popish priests were ordered to leave the kingdom within forty days. The queen was empowered to appoint a Commission to try any who should imagine or set on foot a plot against the sovereign. Some emissaries from the seminary for priests at Douay, which had lately been founded, had busied themselves of late in England, and one Jesuit priest, named Campion, was executed. This instrument for carrying on the work of religious investigation with all the powers of the Inquisition short of the taking away of life, was called the Court of Ecclesiastical Commission.

The Prince of Orange had been assassinated by the Catholic party, and the Hollanders made a second offer of the Netherlands to Elizabeth. She declined the crown, but accepted the Protectorate, and sent the Earl of Leicester at the head of the English troops. Finding that a rupture with Spain was inevitable, she sent Sir Francis Drake with twenty ships to attack the Spanish vessels and settlements.

Sir Walter Raleigh had some time before planted a colony in Virginia, but it had been so unsuccessful, that the colonists were glad to return in Drake's ships.

In Holland, Leicester only showed his incapacity. After slight advantages, he assaulted the town of Zutphen, but failed. It was here that the gallant and accomplished *Sir Philip Sydney* died of his wounds; his last act was to hand his own cup of water to a soldier lying

beside him. "This man's necessity," said he, "is greater than mine."

Mary Queen of Scots had been transferred from the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury, to that of Sir Amias Paulet. Her deliverance if not her restoration, was the darling design of every Roman Catholic in the kingdom. A plot to assassinate the queen brought matters to a crisis. The most prominent name in the conspiracy was that of a young gentleman, Anthony Babington. He was, however, a tool in the hands of the Romish priests, Savage and Ballard. Letters were conveyed to the Scottish queen through an aperture in the wall of her prison by a brewer, who carried ale into the house. These, with her replies, through the treachery of another priest, Gifford, fell into the hands of Walsingham, the Secretary of State. Fourteen of the conspirators were arrested and executed, and Elizabeth resolved to bring Mary to trial for her share in the plot.

The trial was held at Fotheringay Castle under the special act which has been noticed. The queen appointed accordingly forty-seven Commissioners for the purpose. The evidence turned upon the letters, and Mary denied nothing but the charge of plotting the queen's assassination; yet her letters and those of her secretary implied an approval of the plan; and an attempt to fasten the charge of forgery upon Walsingham, though she afterwards withdrew it, served only to weaken her case. The Commissioners adjourned to the Star Chamber in London, and there signed sentence of death against the Queen of Scots. Henry II. of France, and James of Scotland, her son, interceded with Elizabeth to spare the life of one who was not really under her jurisdiction, but in vain. The queen ordered the Secretary Davison to prepare the warrant of execution, yet the next day she seemed sorry to hear that it had passed the Great Seal. The Council urged him to hasten the matter, and the Earls of Shrewsbury and Kent were commissioned to see the execution carried out.

They arrived at Fotheringay; Mary received their announcement with cheerfulness and submission. She spoke encouragingly to her servants at supper time, and toward

morning dressed herself in her richest lace and robes. She had plainly brought herself to feel that by resignation she might die the accepted death of a martyr. She was executed on a scaffold raised in the hall of the castle, the Dean of Peterborough reading a homily which Mary assured him was perfectly unnecessary, as she had made up her mind to die for the faith which she had always professed. She was waited on by two female servants, whom, by command and encouragement, she nobly sustained to do their duty in stripping her and tying the bandage over her eyes, the executioner assisting in the task, Mary herself smiling, and saying that she was little used to unrobing before so large a company, or being served by such valets. The head was severed from the body by two strokes of the axe, and when the headsman held it up streaming and convulsed, the dean said, "So perish all Queen Elizabeth's enemies," to which the Earl of Kent alone answered "Amen." (1587.) She met her end in the forty-fifth year of her age, and after nineteen years of confinement.

Elizabeth affected extreme grief and resentment. She even had Davison tried by the Star Chamber, who sentenced him to imprisonment during the queen's pleasure, and to pay a fine of 10,000*l.*, which reduced him to beggary.

James, weakest of mortals, at first vented his rage against the queen and government of England, and banished the English envoy from his presence, but was reduced to acquiescence by the masterly treatment of Walsingham.

The Spanish hostility was quickened by Drake's measures. He had destroyed more than 100 of the Spanish ships off Cadiz. Philip prepared to requite these aggressions upon England, and built ships of uncommon size, and called his fleet the Invincible Armada. At this time the navy of England consisted only of thirty-four ships and about 14,000 men; while 400 tons constituted a large vessel. The merchants were called upon to furnish reinforcements of ships for this navy.

Lord Howard of Effingham was the High Admiral, and under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher.
Armies were raised for the defence of the land, and the

fleet was reviewed before it set sail by Elizabeth herself, at Tilbury, in Essex.

The Armada, under the Duke of Medina Sidonia, left Lisbon in the May of 1588, was dispersed by storms, and compelled to run back to Corunna to refit. Again they set sail. The Armada consisted of 130 ships, of which nearly 100 were galleons of the largest size, and it carried 20,000 soldiers. The plan laid by Philip was, that the Armada should put in at Dunkirk, to take on board the Spanish troops serving in the Netherlands, and thence make for the mouth of the Thames, and land the forces which were to subjugate the whole of England. The plan adopted by Lord Effingham, was to cannonade the fleet from a distance, as it swept on under full sail toward Plymouth, and to wait the opportunity of attacking it separately.

Another plan of the English was to come to close quarters with the Spaniards, whose guns on their lofty decks overshot the smaller ships of the English.

The Spanish fleet was nearly a week in reaching Calais, while Dunkirk lay farther on; and all this while the English hung on their rear, and attacked their vessels as opportunity offered. A flotilla of eight fire-ships threw them into terrible confusion, for they had already suffered in the Scheldt in this way, and the cry in their panic was, "The fire of Antwerp." The vessels thus vigorously attacked, were destroyed or captured, while the remnant made the best of their way northward. Off the east and north coasts of Scotland they met with tempests, which shattered as many as had been destroyed by the squadron of Drake, and fifty-three only found their way home by the west coast of Ireland, across the Bay of Biscay.

Elizabeth again took part in the affairs of France, which were at this time in a most disturbed state.

Henry III., to disembarass himself of the "league," had caused its leaders, the Duke of Guise, and the cardinal his brother, to be assassinated. He was himself murdered by Clement, a Dominican friar.

Henry, King of Navarre, next heir, seized the crown; but the Duke of Mayenne, brother to Guise, kept

power of the league in full operation, and was abetted by the King of Spain, who even contemplated the annexation of France to his own dominions. Henry IV., in his distress, appealed to Elizabeth, who sent him 22,000*l.*, and a force of 4000 men under Lord Willoughby. A second reinforcement was commanded by the young Earl of Essex, who, on the death of Leicester, had succeeded him in the queen's favour.

For these wars, as also for fitting out vessels against the Spanish cruisers in the New World, the queen summoned a Parliament, and imperiously demanded supplies, which were granted with the utmost servility. Meanwhile, Henry of Navarre renounced the Protestant religion, and the league falling gradually to pieces, he made peace with Spain in 1599.

The fate of the Armada, and the spirit of naval adventure which prevailed, induced the queen to encourage all attacks on the power of Spain. Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been imprisoned for an intrigue with one of the maids of honour, on his release led an expedition at his own expense—first, to the island of St. Thomas, where he met with nothing to compensate his adventure, and afterwards to the coast of Guiana. He navigated the Orinoko to some distance from its mouth, but found none of the fabled riches of Eldorado, the land of gold, which had rewarded Cortez and Pizarro in Mexico and Peru.

In 1596 a fleet was equipped at Plymouth, carrying 7000 men, who were to be transported to Spain against Philip: the land forces were under the command of the Earl of Essex; Lord Howard of Effingham commanded the fleet. The impetuous valour of the former led to the taking of Cadiz. The admiral was made Earl of Nottingham, his patent setting forth the taking of Cadiz, to the annoyance of Essex, who had credited himself with that piece of success.

Another large fleet was next year placed under the sole command of Essex, to meet an attack which it was reported that Philip intended to make on Ireland. He contrived *only to take* three of the slowest of the Spanish vessels, and was compelled by tempests to return home.

Essex was now rising to supreme power. Lord Burleigh,

who never liked him, died. His manner at court, in turning his back upon the queen, led to a temporary quarrel between them. Elizabeth boxed his ears, whereupon the earl laid his hand upon his sword, and declared that he would not have brooked such treatment even from her father, Henry VIII., and left the court. But he soon reappeared, and the passing difference seemed to have made no alteration in the queen's regard.

Soon after Burleigh's death the news reached England of the death of Philip II., who died at an advanced age in his capital of Madrid.

The only remaining transactions of importance belonging to this reign are the affairs of an insurrection in Ireland, which are closely connected with the fall of the queen's favourite young minister, the Earl of Essex.

Hugh O'Neale, nephew to the Shan O'Neale, had been made Earl of Tyrone by the queen, and having murdered his cousin, set up a claim of chief authority in the island, and went so far as to contemplate its dismemberment from the English crown, encouraged by the scanty force of one or two thousand men which the queen kept quartered in the island, and by assistance of forces and ammunition sent to him from Spain. He defeated the opposition of the English commanders, and the council recommended Elizabeth to send over Essex as Lord Lieutenant, with an army of 18,000 men. Nothing could be more disastrous than the fate of this expedition. Fatigue and sickness reduced his forces to 4000, and he was compelled to make peace with Tyrone.

The queen was inexpressibly grieved and disappointed at the failure of this expensive expedition, but commanded Essex to remain in Ireland. Fearing the consequences of remaining at a distance, he broke through the royal command, and appeared, weary, and with soiled apparel, in the queen's private chamber. She received him on that occasion graciously; but when he appeared afterwards in the council her manner was altogether changed. She ordered him to be examined by the council, and committed him to the custody of the lord keeper. He fell ill, but it was insinuated to the queen that this was only pretence. In this

hour of his humiliation there were not wanting some to instigate the queen to his ruin.

Essex, like all favourites, had his enemies. Sir Walter Raleigh was his early rival. Sir Robert Cecil, the younger son of Lord Burleigh, who was now Secretary of State, and afterwards became Earl of Salisbury, did his best to ruin him. Bacon, who afterwards distinguished himself so highly as a philosopher, pleaded against him, though he had always befriended Bacon, had used his interest for his advancement, and had once made him a valuable present of land.

Elizabeth gave signs of permanent disfavour against him. She refused to renew a monopoly of sweet wines which he had enjoyed, remarking that "an ungovernable beast must be stinted in his provender." Essex, in his turn, spoke of the queen on every occasion with marked courtesy.

From expressions he went on to acts of disloyalty. He convened a council for the purpose of compelling the queen to call a Parliament, and settle the government of the country on a better footing. But tumults in the streets of London were the sole result of these projects. Yet enough had transpired to show the mind of Essex, and he was carried to the Tower, and with the Earl of Southampton was tried and condemned by the peers. Elizabeth could hardly bring herself to sanction the carrying out of the sentence. She signed the warrant of execution, then cancelled it, and again ordered it to be carried out.

He might still have been spared if a ring given to him by the queen in a moment of tenderness, to be sent to her when any danger hung over him, had come to her hand. It came not, and the earl was beheaded in the Tower at the age of thirty-four. Some two years later the Countess of Nottingham was dying, and entreated the queen to visit her. She said that the ring had been entrusted to her to convey to Elizabeth, but that, influenced by her husband, who, since their joint command in the expedition against Spain, had been the deadly enemy of Essex, she had forborne to bring it. Rage and grief seized the queen, and it is said that in her violence she shook the dying countess in her bed.

From this time Elizabeth began to sink rapidly, and having, either by a sign of the hand in answer to questions, or in distinct articulation (for there are two accounts), named the King of Scots as her successor, she died tranquilly in the seventieth year of her age.

MAIN POINTS.

Elizabeth's parentage. Welcome by the people. Philip's offer of marriage. Elizabeth's policy and ministers. Alteration of ritual. Origin of Court of High Commission. Degradation of the bishops. Resignation of a few of the clergy. Parliament's suggestion of marriage. Queen's reply. Mary Queen of Scots. Elizabeth's jealousy. Treaty with France and Scotland. Establishment of Presbyterian government in the Church of Scotland. Catherine de Medicis compels Mary to leave France. Progress of the Reformation in France. Elizabeth's operations in France. Their failure. Marriage of Mary to Lord Darnley. David Rizzio. Mysterious death of Darnley. Bothwell. Insurrection. Mary abdicates her kingdom. Battle of Langside. Adventures of Mary. Seeks Elizabeth's protection. Elizabeth's suspicion and alienation from Mary. Execution of the Duke of Norfolk. Parliament suggests to the queen Mary's trial and execution. Massacre of St. Bartholomew's day. Affairs of Holland. Philip of Spain attacks Ireland. Sir Francis Drake. Project of queen's marriage with the Duke of Alençon. Rumours of plots on behalf of Mary. Court of Ecclesiastical Commission. Protectorate of Holland. Sir Walter Raleigh. Earl of Leicester and Sir Philip Sidney in Holland. Babington's conspiracy. Sentence of death against Mary. Conduct of Elizabeth and Mary. Execution of Mary. Quarrels with Spain. The Invincible Armada. Affairs of France. American expedition. Spanish war. Irish insurrection. Fate of Earl of Essex. Death of the Queen.

CHAPTER XXVII.

HOUSE OF STUART. A.D. 1603—A.D. 1688.

JAMES I. A.D. 1603—A.D. 1625.

JAMES I. of England and Sixth of Scotland, was the only son of Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, and Mary Queen of Scots. He was born in Edinburgh Castle in 1566, crowned at Westminster in 1603, and reigned twenty-two years.

By hereditary right the next in succession to the throne were the descendants of Margaret of Scotland, the eldest sister of Henry VIII. ; but the statute of the thirty-fifth year of that king's reign had empowered him to dispose of the crown by will ; and in this will, which was an amendment upon a former one, he passed over the line of Margaret's descendants.

James married Anne, daughter of Frederic II., King of Denmark.

His children were Henry, who died at eighteen. Charles, who afterwards succeeded to the throne as Charles I., and Elizabeth, married to Frederic, Elector Palatine of Bavaria, who afterwards became king of Bohemia. From her descendants through her youngest daughter, Sophia, who married the Elector of Hanover, came the line on whom the Protestant succession was settled in 1700.

The reign of James was singularly free from wars, the only war recorded in connexion with it, being one between the king's son-in-law, the Elector, and Ferdinand II., Emperor of Germany, in which the English king sent him some assistance, but with no successful result. In James were legally united the Crowns of Scotland and England. He styled himself King of Great Britain.

Soon after his accession a conspiracy was formed in favour of Lady Arabella Stuart, the king's cousin. Sir Walter Raleigh, accused of having shared in this conspiracy, was for thirteen years imprisoned in the Tower, where he wrote a work called the *History of the World*. Lord Grey and Lord Cobham, who were also implicated in the charge, were pardoned after laying their heads upon the block.

James at his accession was thirty-six years old, and the people were ready to welcome the event with rejoicing ; but his retiring, ungainly, and pedantic ways, as well as a certain crotchettiness of temper, told against him from the first. He had written a book, which he intended for a present for the use of his son, to which he gave the Greek name of *Basilikon Doron*, or the Royal Gift. He also wrote essays on Demonology. His flatterers called him

the British Solomon. The Duke de Sully pronounced him the most learned fool in Christendom. He distributed knighthood to a lavish extent, and gave away a great number of the inferior state appointments to his Scotch followers, whom he had lured as a hungry race southward to what he called "the land of promise." But the higher offices he with some wisdom allowed the English to retain. Cecil, afterwards Earl of Salisbury, he treated as his especial vizier in the affairs of state.

In 1604 the king summoned an ecclesiastical conference at Hampton Court, of which the object was to reconcile the Church and the Puritans. A few alterations in the Book of Common Prayer were effected, and the conference separated. Little or no practical good was done, but the king had shown off his learning.

Upon the meeting of the Commons they granted the king tonnage and poundage—a tax which was the origin of our Custom-house duties,—but they refused him a supply. Whereupon the king, standing upon his dignity, refused the supply which had never been offered. When he prorogued the Parliament, he expressed himself in such terms of dissatisfaction as to exhibit that extreme notion of the royal prerogative which was the besetting weakness of the house of Stuart. The evil took root now, to bear bitter fruit in succeeding years. The three years from 1607 to 1610 were occupied in the translation of the present authorized English Bible by forty-eight learned divines. It was printed in Roman type, as distinguished from the Old English or German introduced by Caxton.

As a means of raising money James created the rank and title of baronet, as intermediate between the commons and the nobility. The fees for the patent amounted to rather more than 1000*l.*

In the same year with the Hampton Court conference a peace with Spain was concluded, and signed by the Spanish ministers in London.

In the spring of 1604 was hatched the Gunpowder Plot. James turned out a steadier Protestant than some had anticipated. The Roman Catholics were disappointed; and from disappointment they went on to vexation, and

from that to an extraordinary scheme of retaliation. The scheme was broached by Robert Catesby, a Roman Catholic gentleman. Two months before the sitting of Parliament the conspirators, in the name of Sir Henry Percy, one of their number, hired a house which adjoined the Parliament buildings. Their first project was to dig through the walls of this house at the foundation and find their way to a central spot under the Parliament house. Having done so, they were surprised to come upon a vault in which a large quantity of coals had been stored. But on hearing that the vault was to be let and the coals to be sold, they became tenants of the one and purchasers of the other. Into this vault they conveyed thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which had been brought from Holland, and covering them over with coals and faggots, disarmed suspicion by leaving the vault unclosed. The king, queen, and Prince Henry, their eldest son, were expected to attend the Parliament. Their second son, Charles, afterwards Charles I., was to be seized elsewhere, and assassinated by Sir Henry Percy, while Sir Everard Digby was to seize the Princess Elizabeth, who was at the time staying at Lord Harrington's house in Warwickshire, and to proclaim her queen. The time for action now approached, and the secret shared by twenty persons had been kept for a year and a half. The scheme was rendered abortive by Percy himself, who, anxious to save the life of his friend, Lord Mounteagle, also a Roman Catholic, wrote him an anonymous letter, in which he sought earnestly to dissuade him from attending that parliament, which was to "receive," he said, "a terrible blow, and yet not see who hurt it." Not comprehending the purport of this enigmatical communication, he carried it to James's friend, Cecil, Lord Salisbury, who, in his turn, took it to the king in council. James was the first to put the true interpretation upon it. The Earl of Suffolk, as Lord Chamberlain, was ordered to make the requisite inspection, which he purposely postponed to the night before the appointed meeting of Parliament, and Guy Fawkes, in cloak, muffler, and lantern, *with matches and combustibles*, was seized in the vault. *He was sent to the Tower, and declared the names of the*

other conspirators, but not till he was threatened with the rack in case of his refusal to do so. The conspirators, to the number of eighty persons, on hearing of Fawkes' arrest, fled into Warwickshire, where they resolved to make a stand. By a curious coincidence, a spark fell among some of their gunpowder, blowing up a part of their house, and wounding some so severely that the rest surrendered. Several were killed in resistance, others taken alive; of these, the majority were executed. So ended the famous Gunpowder Plot.

In 1610 the king came again into collision with his Parliament. Lord Salisbury declared the royal wants first to the peers, then to a committee of the lower house. The Commons voted a sum of somewhat less than 100,000*l.*, which was by no means sufficient. The king proceeded to raise the Customs rates; but the Commons grew more resistent. They were bent on abolishing royal impositions. They went so far as to offer the king a settled revenue, and he seemed willing to come to an agreement; but difficulties, of which we have no account, interposed to delay the settlement of so weighty a plan, and the Parliament, which had sat nearly seven years, came to a close leaving the matter undetermined.

The murder of Henry IV. of France by the assassin Ravillac, which occurred at this time, set the minds of the English people more than ever against the Roman Catholics, and induced them to put into stringent force the laws formerly enacted against them.

About this time James brought to a close his plans for improving the condition of the Irish, a matter in which he showed more practical wisdom, perhaps, than in any other of his reign. A company was established in London for colonizing Ulster, which was forfeited by rebellion to the crown. It was as a fund for the protection of these colonies that James created the baronetcies to which we have before referred. Hence the bloody hand, the cognizance of Ulster, which all baronets wear upon their coats of arms.

Mention has been made of Henry Prince of Wales in connexion with the Gunpowder Plot. He died, a youth,

of remarkable promise, to the great grief of the nation, in his eighteenth year. Soon afterwards took place the marriage, not a felicitous one, of the Princess Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine of Bavaria.

During the greater part of his life, James permitted himself to be influenced by weak and unworthy favourites. The first of these was Robert Carr, who arrived in London, as a youth of twenty years of age, from Scotland, with letters of introduction to Lord Hay, by whom he was brought to the king's notice at a tournament. The king was much struck with his handsome face and figure and refined address (besides which the youth had nothing to recommend him), taught him Latin grammar, and took him into his confidence. Carr met with a judicious friend and adviser in Sir Thomas Overbury, but an event occurred which ruined both. The king had made Carr Viscount Rochester, and placed him altogether in the position formerly occupied by Lord Salisbury. Rochester entertained an illicit passion for the wife of the Earl of Essex, who had been restored to the forfeited honours of his father. Overbury strongly opposed it, and to get him out of the way, the favourite induced the king to appoint him ambassador to the Court of Russia. Overbury declined the appointment, and for so doing was committed to the Tower. A divorce meanwhile was procured by the countess, her husband consenting, and Rochester was made Earl of Somerset. But jealousy against Overbury rankled in her breast, and her husband, with her uncle, the Earl of Northampton, were persuaded to compass his death by poison. But from that moment all enjoyment of life, all gaiety of manner, even good looks, fled, and left the handsome minion a prey to settled dejection. He soon lost all charms for the king, and the courtiers brought forward a new candidate for the royal indulgence.

George Villiers, a youth of one-and-twenty, who had just returned from travel, possessed similar recommendations. He was placed in full view of the king at a comedy. The bait was taken, and soon Villiers was made the king's cupbearer. The court was divided between *the two favourites*, but Somerset's guilt was detected, to his

utter ruin. The apothecary who had made up the poisons had gone to Flanders, where he talked so much about it that it reached the ears of the Flemish envoy, who reported it to Sir Ralph Winwood, Secretary of State. He informed the king, and Sir Edward Coke was employed to unravel the mystery. All the accomplices of Sir Thomas Overbury's murder were brought to trial and executed; but Somerset and the countess received the king's pardon. They were for some years imprisoned, then released with a pension, and died after a life of infamy and mutual hatred.

The course of Villiers was now open, and his rise rapid. He became Viscount Villiers, Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Buckingham, Lord High Admiral of England, with other inferior honours.

The name of Sir Walter Raleigh, which belongs to this and the preceding reign, is one of the highest interest, not only on account of the chivalrous and accomplished character of the man himself, but also from the fact that with it is connected the first attempt at colonization on the part of England. The people had forgotten him as the bitter enemy of their favourite, the Earl of Essex, and thought of him now only as a genius, a man of naval and military enterprise, and a man of learning, yet languishing out his life in prison. To help on this feeling in his favour, he spread the report of a gold mine which he had discovered in Guiana, and which needed nothing but a visit to enrich the adventurers and the nation. James granted him his liberty, but not pardon, with authority over a band of adventurers who were ready to join him in his expedition. He went out, but was resisted by the Spaniards, who shot Raleigh's son and Keymis, who had endeavoured to penetrate to the mine. The Spanish ambassador Gondemar complained to the king, and James, to gratify the Spaniards, ordered Raleigh's execution, not for any present offence, but for the old charge of treason.

We have said that the execution of Raleigh was conceded to the Spaniards from a desire of gratifying that people on the part of the king. One ground of this desire was James's wish that his son Prince Charles should marry

into one of the royal families of Europe. The Spanish ambassador had proposed the second daughter of his sovereign, giving hopes of an immense fortune with the bride. But the negotiations with Spain were so protracted that five years saw nothing determined. Villiers proposed that the prince and himself should travel together, like knights-errant, or a knight and his squire, and among other romantic adventures should take a peep at the Spanish princess. The old king, influenced by his favourite, gave his sanction to this wild scheme. However, the match was broken off for reasons unknown—perhaps the knight thought too little of the fair lady, and Charles afterwards married Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Henry IV. of France.

The king's son-in-law the Elector gave him far more trouble. Frederic rebelled against the Emperor Ferdinand II. He was defeated by the Austrians in the battle of Prague, and was driven with his family to take refuge in Holland. In vain at first did the Elector apply to James for aid; James was too eager to retain the goodwill of Spain, to join against Austria on the Protestant side, in what was really a war for the Protestant or Catholic ascendancy. However, James relaxed after a while, and declared war against Spain and Austria. Six thousand men were sent to Holland to assist Prince Maurice, to which Count Mansfeldt added 12,000 more, while the French Court promised its aid. But the English army found no preparations for their landing either at Calais or in Holland, to which they afterwards repaired, so that half died of sickness, and the other half returned home without even landing on the Continent of Europe.

Soon afterwards, James died of tertian ague at his Palace at Theobalds, in Hertfordshire. He died warmly exhorting his son Charles to persevere in the Protestant religion.

The light of his age was England's Chancellor in the reign of James I., Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, the *author* of the "Novum Organum," the inaugurator of *inductive science*. The great philosopher was censured

for receiving bribes by the Parliament, and fined 40,000*l.* He was committed to the Tower, but shortly released, and received a pension of 1800*l.* a year.

MAIN POINTS.

James's title to the crown. His marriage and children. Character of his réign. Union of England and Scotland. Conspiracy for Lady Arabella Stuart by Sir Walter Raleigh, Lord Grey, and Lord Cobham. Character of James. Conference at Hampton Court. Beginning of differences between the king and the Parliament. Translation of Bible. Origin of baronets. Gunpowder plot. Another collision of king and Parliament. Effect on England of assassination of Henry IV. James's Irish plans. King's favourites. Rochester. Murder of Sir Thomas Overbury. Villiers, Duke of Buckingham. Fate of Sir Walter Raleigh. James's policy in regard to Spain. Battle of Prague. Death of king. Bacon.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CHARLES I. A.D. 1625—A.D. 1649.

SOON after his accession, Charles, who was now in his twenty-fifth year, married Henrietta Maria, daughter of the French king, Henry IV. He had espoused her in Paris through Buckingham, who acted as his proxy.

He had inherited a war with Spain, and seemed to have a right to expect that the Commons would grant him liberal supplies for its prosecution. But it contained men of peculiar talent and resolution of purpose, whose fixed policy it was to curb what they felt to be the unconstitutional exercise of the royal prerogative.

For the defence of Ireland and for the Spanish war, he required upwards of a million a year. The Commons, though he used entreaty with them, would grant no more than 140,000*l.* Charles accordingly levied a tax on his own authority by issuing privy seals, and with the proceeds he was enabled to equip a fleet of eighty vessels and an army of 10,000 men, which he placed under the command of Sir William Cecil, now created Viscount Wimbledon.

Cecil undertook an expedition against Cadiz and failed. Charles, who might have dropped what was, after all, no formally declared war, was urged by Buckingham to persist. The Commons grudged the money, and Buckingham became more and more unpopular.

The Earl of Bristol had offended Charles's friend Buckingham in the affair of the Spanish marriage, and Charles had ordered that no writ of summons to attend the next Parliament should be sent to the earl. He accordingly entreated the intervention of the House of Peers with the king. His writ was sent, but an order from the king accompanied it, that he should not attend. Again the peer appealed to the House of Peers, and the royal prohibition was withdrawn, and Lord Bristol took his seat. But Charles ordered the Attorney-General to lodge against him an accusation of high treason. The earl retorted by bringing the same charge against Buckingham. In this he had the cordial co-operation of the Commons, who drew up several articles against the duke of neglecting the guardianship of the coasts of the kingdom, of grasping at the union of public offices in his own person, of lending ships to France to serve against the Huguenots, of selling offices and dignities of State, of procuring large grants and houses for himself and his friends from the Crown, and of giving the late king physic on his own responsibility. Bristol replied to the charges brought against him. To his impeachments Buckingham made no answer.

Charles had failed in his efforts to procure a parliamentary grant. He determined to try again the force of the prerogative. A Commission was granted for the strangest possible purpose, that of compounding with the Roman Catholics for sums of money, instead of the penal statutes against them.

The king asked contributions from the nobility, and a loan of 100,000*l.* from the City of London.

Each of the maritime towns was also rated at a certain number of ships, to be maintained by its district. A general loan was levied by the king's council upon all *subjects*, and a Commission appointed to raise it. It was a point on which the nation was divided. Some were for

resisting the loan to the uttermost; others preached the doctrine of passive obedience to the king's behests. The recusants were imprisoned.

The king seemed most incompetent to undertake a war; yet to the surprise of all, he now declared war against France, the origin of which is commonly said to have been a quarrel between Buckingham, and the French Minister, Cardinal Richelieu. But personal quarrels are often indications of more wide-spread differences. France was disgusted at the non-fulfilment of the articles of Charles's marriage treaty, England at not receiving assistance from the French in the German war. Buckingham had persuaded Charles to dismiss the French attendants of the queen, and instigated the English vessels of war to capture French cruisers. Together the king and Buckingham resolved upon a military expedition against France, with a fleet of nearly 100 ships, and an army of 7000 men.

The Cardinal was at the time besieging Rochelle, a stronghold of the Huguenots on the Bay of Biscay. Foiled in his attempts on the land side, he had built a mole half a mile long across the mouth of the harbour. Buckingham tried in vain to relieve the besieged; he returned, having lost almost half his men.

At Portsmouth he was preparing to sail with a second squadron, when he was stabbed by Felton, a naval officer whom he had dismissed from the service. Rochelle surrendered to Richelieu in 1628.

In the same year Charles called his third Parliament.

Before granting any more money, the Commons drew up the famous Petition of Rights. The articles of the petition required the king to levy no imposts without consent of Parliament, to detain no one in prison without trial, and to billet no soldiers in private houses. An assent was wrung from the king, and the Commons rejoicing in this, which was regarded as the second great charter of English liberty, gave him five subsidies, which amounted to nearly 400,000*l.*

The king set little store by his promise. The article on which the king and the Commons came to

a final issue, was that of "tonnage and poundage," as it was called. The king maintained that it was a life grant. The Commons that in spite of seeming precedents to the contrary, in former reigns it was only a grant *pro tempore*. As the king proceeded to levy it on his prerogative, the Commons required that he should desist.

Into this quarrel between the king and Commons on the tonnage and poundage, was imported by the zeal or restlessness of the Commons, who now felt their own power, and were resolved more and more to exercise it, questions about the management of religion. Those who promoted the changes of the latter kind were called Puritans, from their avowed aim at purer systems of politics, ceremonies, and doctrines; so that hand in hand with the question of royal prerogative, and tonnage and poundage, went that of Arminianism and Calvinism, or free will and predestination. On one occasion, when the Commons had met to prepare a remonstrance, the Usher of the Lords broke open the doors, took nine members, and sent them to prison by order of the king.

For eleven years no Parliament was called. Charles was at this time in the hands of two leading ministers, who instigated in every way the action of the king, independent of Parliament. These were Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury.

It is remarkable that Strafford had been at one time a popular leader, and was among those who had forced the king to sign the Petition of Rights. Many others of the same side came over to the king; in short, it seemed to be the policy of Charles now to gain over such men to his own side; and as converts are always zealous, he soon found himself surrounded by a set of men who had made up their minds to do, dare, and suffer all in favour of royal prerogative.

Laud hated the Puritans, and longed for the restoration of the ceremonies and pretensions of the Church to the highest pitch which they had reached in mediæval times. Under these advisers three tribunals were in active operation: the Star Chamber, which punished resistance to

the king's orders with fine, imprisonment, and mutilation ; the High Commission Court, which was the instrument of Laud's ecclesiastical rule ; and a Council, of which Wentworth was president, and which seemed to combine the powers of the Star Chamber and Court of High Commission, to be exercised over the northern counties of England.

Of all the unconstitutional taxes levied by the king, ship-money was the most notoriously arbitrary.

The tax upon the seaports for the defence of the coast was as old as the Danish invasions. In 1634 Chief Justice Finch and the Attorney-General, Noy, proposed to revive this tax. Many were the objections to it. In the minds of these lawyers it stood out as a naked right, but the people put their own comments upon it, which deprived it of all practical force or obligation. It was a war-tax, yet the present was a condition of profound peace. It was laid not only upon the maritime districts, as of old, but on the inland counties. The money was to be applied not to a fleet, but to a standing army ; and lastly, it was collected by the sole authority of the king.

As a sample of the proceedings of the Star Chamber may be mentioned the case of Prynne. Prynne was a barrister of Lincoln's Inn, who wrote a book, to which he gave the unwieldy title of *Histrio-Mastix*, by which he meant to convey that he disapproved of plays, and chastised actors with his book. It was directed against festivities and games in general. As both the king and queen indulged in such recreations, Prynne was indicted by the Star Chamber for libel. He was disbarred, put into the pillory at Westminster, where he lost one ear, and at Cheapside he parted with the other ; he was fined 5000*l.*, and imprisoned for life. By way of mortifying the Puritans, Charles allowed sports and recreations on Sunday to those who attended divine service, and had his edict to that effect read in the churches.

For three years no resistance was shown to the raising of ship-money. At the end of that period John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, resolved to bring the matter to an issue, by refusing to pay the tax of twenty

shillings on his estate. The case was argued in the Exchequer Chamber before all the judges. Only three decided for Hampden, and that not on general grounds, but technical points, peculiar to the present case.

These arbitrary proceedings led to an emigration of many Englishmen who valued civil and religious freedom to the colony of New England. Hampden, Prynne, and Cromwell were among the leading men who meditated a departure from England, but they were detained by order of the government.

The discontent of England was fomented by the proceedings in Scotland. During the king's visit to that country in 1633 he appointed thirteen bishops. Four years later he commanded a liturgy to be used in the churches of Edinburgh. In the cathedral of St. Giles, when the dean rose to read the liturgy, a woman named Jenny Geddes signalized herself by throwing a stool at his head, and when the bishop mounted the pulpit to address the people, such an outcry arose as compelled the discontinuance of the service.

An order from Charles proclaimed the enforcement of the new liturgy, if necessary, by armed interference ; but in two months the Covenant was formed for the resistance of all such popish revivals, as they were considered. A general assembly, held at Glasgow, excommunicated the bishops, and abolished prelacy in Scotland : and the presbyterian character of the Scotch church was more firmly than ever established.

The difficulties in Scotland were aggravated by France. Annoyed by Charles's opposition to his designs in Flanders, Cardinal Richelieu secretly supplied the Covenanters with money and ammunition. The Earl of Argyle took upon himself the leadership of the Covenant, and the Covenanters resolved on defending the country against the king.

Charles raised a large fleet and army, and led it in person as far as Berwick, where a treaty was made to compose all difficulties ; the king's authority being recognised in Scotland, and he withdrawing his forces without delay. The king also consented to the abolition of church *canons, the liturgy, and the bishops in that country.*

But the Scotch Parliament advanced their pretensions, and Charles was again compelled to think of war; for which the Covenanters were much better prepared than the king, who had even disbanded his army.

In 1640, after nearly twelve years of suspension and unconstitutional efforts on the part of the king, a Parliament was again called. They would not make any supply or listen to the king's complaints against his Scottish subjects till they had stated their own grievances. The Commons were full of complaints against the public and personal measures of the king, and would grant nothing. The king, in utter embarrassment, dissolved the Parliament. The people were incensed. A mob attacked the palace of Laud, at Lambeth, and another broke into St. Paul's, where the High Commission sat, with violent cries of "No Bishops; no High Commission."

After a while the king, by expedients of his own, had raised, though with great difficulty, money enough to send an army northward. The Covenanters advanced into England, declaring that they desired no more than an interview with the king, at whose feet they would lay their petition. Being stopped by Conway and the king's forces they crossed the Tyne at Newburn, and seized Newcastle. The king advanced to meet them at York, where they repeated their former expressions of loyalty and submission, and commissioners were appointed to meet at Ripon—sixteen on the royal side, and eleven on that of the Covenanters. Charles had also summoned a Council of Peers at York. The army of Charles was in no condition to cope with the Scotch, and foreseeing that his peers intended formally to advise him to call a Parliament, the king forestalled them by informing them that he had already resolved to do so. The Scots were to receive a weekly subsidy of 5600*l.*, and the question of the treaty was to be debated in London.

In 1640 the new Parliament—the last of the reign—met, to which subsequent history gave the name of the Long Parliament. They chose Lenthal for their speaker, in opposition to Gardiner, the king's nominee. Their *first act was to impeach Strafford, and Pym was delegated*

to carry the impeachment to the Lords. The majority of the House accompanied him, and on this general charge Strafford was ordered into custody.

After a short deliberation Laud, also, was similarly impeached for high treason. Laud and Strafford were sent to the Tower. All persons who privately or officially had been implicated in carrying out the king's edicts were now designated by the term delinquents.

The Commons seemed to have acquired, with great sagacity and resoluteness, great unanimity; and the names of Pym, Hampden, St. John, Hollis, Vane, Digby, Capel, Palmer, Hyde, and Falkland, appear as men who, by courage or ambition, by tact and calmness, by ardour and enthusiasm, by moderation and forbearance, according to the differences of individual temperament, nevertheless worked out the common purpose, each in his place, and to the best of his ability. The debates in the House were published, having been formerly suppressed by Laud. Prynne, with two other Puritans, Bastwick and Burton, being released from confinement in the Channel Islands, returned to England, where they were welcomed, and received handsome donations as proofs of public sympathy.

The Scotch and English armies absorbed 80,000*l.* a month; a sum far greater than any that had been formerly demanded of the people. The Commons did not grudge it, for their only hope was in the continuance of the Parliament, and if once the king were out of debt the Parliament would be dissolved.

The Puritans were growing more and more bitter against the Church. They brought in a bill for incapacitating clergymen for civil offices and ejecting the bishops from the House of Lords. They issued orders for the removal of images, crosses, altars, crucifixes; and it was now that the crosses at Cheapside and Charing Cross were removed by Sir Robert Harley. A committee was appointed to investigate the cases of scandalous ministers, which was made an inquisition into almost anything connected with the persons and appointments of the clergy.

The next effort of the Commons was in itself just and necessary. They aimed at securing sufficiently frequent

Parliaments. The statute of Edward III., which had provided that they should be held at least once in every year, had fallen into abeyance. The present efforts were directed to convening it at least once in three years. The chancellor was to issue writs by the 3rd of September in every third year; failing this, the peers, and on their failing, the sheriffs, should assemble the voters; and lastly, the voters, if not summoned, should meet for themselves: nor could the Parliament, which had once met, be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved under fifty days. Such a plan as this was an immense stride in the direction of popular rights and just administration of law.

Strafford's case was investigated by a joint committee of the Lords and Commons in Westminster Hall. The king and queen attended throughout the trial. Twenty-eight articles were drawn up against him. They turned on his conduct as President of the Northern Council, as Lord Lieutenant in Ireland, and as Officer of State in England. Among other modes of exaction, which he was accused of practising, was that of billeting of soldiers on those who resisted the king's demands.

Strafford made an eloquent and effective defence, and gained much sympathy and popularity thereby. The popular leaders fearing too favourable an issue resolved to proceed against him by bill of attainder instead of the former bill of impeachment, which would give the Commons a power of judgment as well as accusation. Pym and Hampden opposed this as unnecessary; but they were outvoted. The judges delivered an ambiguous sentence that Strafford was guilty of treason, in "that which their lordships had voted to be proved." Charles was much grieved, and cast about for some plan to save him. Juxon, Bishop of London, alone had the courage to urge the king not to assent to the bill if he did not in his conscience approve it. Meanwhile, Strafford wrote a letter to the king advising him to assent, and so save himself from all further difficulty. He accordingly, by commission, gave his consent to the bill. Yet when the king sent Carleton, the secretary, to inform Strafford of what he had done he seemed much surprised. "Put not your trust in princes," said he

“nor in the children of men.” Charles made another effort to save him, and sent the young prince to the Lords to beg them to hold a conference with the Commons on the mitigation of Strafford’s sentence, but the request was denied. As Strafford passed under Laud’s windows to execution, he knelt to receive the archbishop’s benediction. He died nobly; yet it cannot be doubted that his was a policy wholly contrary to the interests of a free people. He called that policy by the significant name of “the Thorough.” It was nothing short of an absolute monarchy upheld by military force.

On the same day that the king gave his assent to Strafford’s execution, he also assented to a bill which had been rapidly passed through both Houses, that the Parliament should not be adjourned, prorogued, or dissolved, without their own consent. Another was passed abolishing the Courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber. On the adjournment of the Parliament a committee of both Houses was appointed to sit during the recess with certain powers.

A small committee of both Houses was also appointed to attend the king on his journey of pacification to Scotland. Besides their large pay, the English Parliament now made the Scotch a donation of 300,000*l.* for their brotherly good-will. The king was compelled to abjure much of his prerogative in Scotland. Some of the Covenanters were sworn members of his Privy Council, and he was obliged to conform outwardly, during his residence there, to the forms of the Presbyterian religion.

A formidable insurrection took place in Ireland. This was produced by the disbanding of the large army, which, in his policy of Thorough, Strafford had for some time been augmenting as a reserve for the king’s service. It was headed by the O’Neales, the representatives of the Tyrone family, Lord Maguire, and the leading families of Ulster. The movement was embittered by religious hatred, and upwards of 40,000 Protestants are said to have been massacred.

The Parliament either believed or professed to believe, that the king himself had fomented the insurrection, and the popular leaders framed a document called “the Remonstrance,” addressed to the people on the subject of

the general state of the country. Every piece of failure or grievance was patched together that had occurred since the king's accession, and the aggregate was ascribed to a dominant popish faction in the king's counsels. The Remonstrance was warmly debated in the Commons, and Hyde and Falkland were in opposition to it. A desperate cry of No-Popery was raised. The peers who adhered to the crown were publicly insulted in the streets, and the bishops, through fear of popular violence, absented themselves from the House of Lords. The two parties about this time received their distinctive names. The king's adherents were called Cavaliers or gentlemen; the opposition were named Roundheads, from the Puritan fashion of wearing the hair closely cropped.

The king was now betrayed into an act to which the concluding disasters of his reign may be distinctly traced. This was the impeachment of Lord Kimbolton and five members of the Commons—Hollis, Hazlerigg, Hampden, Pym, and Strode. When Herbert, the Attorney-General, appeared for the impeachment in the House of Commons and a serjeant-at-arms demanded the persons of the five members, he was dismissed with no reply. The next day the king, leaving his body-guard of about 200 gentlemen at the door, entered the House, and taking the chair asked what had become of the impeached members; the speaker dropped on his knee and replied that his majesty must be pleased to forgive him if he had neither eyes nor ears except as a servant of the House. The king said angrily, that he should expect the members to be sent to him, and that they should have a fair trial. "Privilege! Privilege!" cried some of the members as the king retired. The next morning the king went to the Guildhall and addressed the Common Council. The speech met with no sign of applause, and as he drove home through the streets he heard in all directions the words Privilege of Parliament! and a paper was thrown into the royal coach, having the words written, "To your tents, O Israel!"—the mutiny-cry of the Jews at the time of the severance of the kingdom under Rehoboam.

The outcry against the king was now no longer con-

fined to Parliament, but raised everywhere in the streets of London. 4000 horsemen had ridden up in honour of Hampden, from his county of Buckinghamshire. Charles, humiliated and deserted, retired to Hampton Court. The queen, threatened with an impeachment, prepared to leave the country for Holland.

The Parliament now took the command of the army. This, though necessitated by the position in which they had placed themselves, was a distinct usurpation of one of the most ancient rights of the crown. Charles, who when he heard this was at Dover, moved by slow journeys northward to York, where he was well received. More and more offers of sympathy and support being tendered to him, he adopted a bolder tone, and distinctly refused the Militia Bill. The Commons, accordingly, framed an ordinance, in which, without the king's consent, they named their own lieutenants of counties, giving them, in each county, the supreme military command. The king presented himself at Hull, and Sir John Hotham, the Parliamentarian Governor, refused him admittance.

This seems to have been the turning point of the whole affair. For now, for the first time, the North of England commenced raising men and money for the king's support and protection, which may be regarded as the germ of a royalist army. The county of York levied a body-guard for the king of 600, which the Parliament voted a breach of confidence on his part. The forces of the Parliament, which rapidly increased, were put under the command of the Earl of Essex.

The women of London parted with their valuables for the popular party; the queen, for the benefit of her husband, parted with the crown jewels in Holland.

The Parliament now made overtures to the king. Their proposal contained the following specifications: That only Parliamentarians should be the king's council; that every deed of the king, to be valid, must be countersigned by the council; that the officers of State and the judges should be chosen with consent of Parliament, and hold their *offices for life*; that the consent of Parliament in council *should be requisite for the marriage of any member of*

the royal family ; that the penal laws against the Catholics should be enforced ; that Parliament should have plenary power in the reformation of the liturgy and government of the Church ; that the Militia Bill, placing the military power in the hands of Parliament, be assented to ; and that the consent of both Houses be required for the making of a peer of the realm. To such proposals, regarding them in the simple light of insults, the king and his counsellors would not listen for a moment.

Charles prepared for war ; and marching southward erected the royal standard at Nottingham in 1642.

His forces, at the first, did not exhibit a very imposing appearance. His artillery, though not large, had been left behind at York, for want of horses to convey it. Sir John Digby, the sheriff, had some trained bands ready for the king's service ; but, besides these, Charles had only about 300 foot and 800 cavalry. The Parliamentary forces were at Northampton, a few days' march from them, and consisted of above 6000 well-armed and well-appointed men. Fortunately for the Royalists, the Earl of Essex had, as yet, received no positive orders. Under these circumstances the king sent the Earl of Southampton, with Sir John Colepepper and Sir William Uvedale, with offers of a treaty. This both Houses refused to entertain till the king should take down his standard.

The Parliament had got possession of Portsmouth through the negligence of the governor, Goring, and the Earl of Bedford had driven the royalists, under the Marquis of Hertford, into Wales.

The Parliamentary army was now concentrated, under the Earl of Essex, at Northampton, and amounted to 15,000 men. On the appearance of national disturbance the Princes Rupert and Maurice, sons of the Elector Palatine, had come to England, and the first actual engagement of the civil wars was the routing of a body of cavalry belonging to the Parliament by the former, near Worcester. The king's army amounted to 10,000 men. The Earl of Lindsay, who had fought in the Low Countries, was general ; Prince Rupert, who displayed great *qualities in the course of these wars*, commanded the

cavalry, Sir Jacob Astley the foot, Sir Arthur Aston the dragoons, and Sir John Heydon the artillery.

The armies first met at Edge-hill, in the county of Warwick. About 1200 men, on both sides, are said to have fallen after hard fighting without any decided superiority on either side. Lord Lindsay was mortally wounded, and taken prisoner.

The king's forces took Banbury; were welcomed at Oxford, which was altogether devoted to him; seized Reading, and made for Windsor, to the alarm of the Parliament, whose forces were still at a distance. Essex reached London by forced marches. Charles defeated some of the Parliamentary regiments at Brentford, and returned by way of Reading to Oxford.

During the winter, negotiations were renewed at Oxford, but neither the king nor the Parliament would abate anything of former requirements.

In 1643 the campaign opened by the Earl of Essex taking Reading. Lord Fairfax commanded for the Parliament, in the north, and the Earl of Newcastle for the king; but the latter took York, and combined the northern counties in a league for the king. On the side of the Parliament, Sir William Waller took Winchester, Chichester, Hereford, and Tewkesbury; while Sir Ralph Hopton held Cornwall for the king.

A skirmish took place at Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire, remarkable for nothing but the death of Hampden, who was shot by two bullets in the shoulder.

The scene of battle was in the west. A pitched battle was fought at Lansdowne, near Bath, the Marquis of Hertford and Prince Maurice commanding on one side, and Sir William Waller on the other. This was succeeded by another at Devizes, in which Waller was defeated, and retired to Bristol; this city, a few days afterwards, surrendered to Prince Rupert, and Charles himself arriving, laid siege to Gloucester. In the House of Commons Waller the poet, Tomkins, and Chaloner moved for a settlement by the Parliament of the question with the king on some reasonable conditions; the movement was imputed to *fear and disaffection*; they were tried by a court martial;

the two latter were gibbeted, and Waller escaped with a fine of 10,000*l.*

Essex now marched for Gloucester, and compelled the king to raise the siege; he returned to London, but was surprised to find at Newbury that the king had intercepted him. Both sides fought till night put an end to the fighting; the next morning Essex moved off to London. Lord Falkland, Secretary of State, fell on the king's side; he had passed over from the popular to the royal party, in hope of bringing about such a moderate and constitutional exercise of the powers of the crown as he had learnt to prefer to the anarchy of the times. After the battle of Newbury the armies retired to winter quarters.

In the north now appeared two men destined to be most prominent in the sequel, Sir Thomas Fairfax, the son of Lord Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell, son of a gentleman of Huntingdonshire. They defeated, respectively, detachments of royalists, at Wakefield and Gainsborough—Cromwell's first victory.

At Atherton Moor Lord Fairfax, on the other side, was totally routed.

A terrible storm was now brewing in Scotland. By the eloquence of Vane the Scots formed the Solemn League and Covenant between the Parliaments of the two kingdoms. Under their general, Lord Leven, the Scotch entered England with an army of 20,000 men.

The articles of the Covenant were the same as of old; all turning on the limitation of the royal prerogative and the extirpation of prelacy. Troops were recalled from Ireland for the king's service, but they had imbibed, during their service across the Channel, such a hatred of popery, that, associating it with the cause of Charles, the great mass of them deserted. In the south, under Essex, the soldiers of the Parliament suffered many defeats; but in the north, on Marston Moor, the Roundheads, aided by the Scots, gained a brilliant victory. The capture of York and Newcastle followed; a second battle of Newbury was won by Charles.

An off-shoot from the Puritan party had for some time been taking root and spreading in England. These were

the Independents, of whom Cromwell was the chief. Their religious system was based upon the principle that every congregation of Christians was in itself a complete and therefore independent church, which owed no subjection to bishops or councils. In politics they desired the substitution of a republic for the monarchy, and called themselves Root-and-Branch men. By their influence an Act, called the Self-denying Ordinance, was passed, by which members of Parliament were incapacitated from holding commands in the army. In this way the Earls of Essex, Warwick, and Manchester were removed. Cromwell ought to have been removed also, but his political craft, one of the distinguishing features of his character, came in to save him. He was sent with a body of horse to the far west, and Fairfax represented to the House that his recall from that distance would be so detrimental that he should be retained for the present in command. His commission was afterwards extended to the whole campaign. In appearance the command of the army devolved upon Fairfax; in reality upon Cromwell.

Another conference was opened between the king and the Parliament at Uxbridge, but agreement was soon seen to be hopeless. Among the demands of the Parliament on that occasion was the recognition of the new form of worship, which had been instituted two years before, by an assembly of one hundred and twenty-one divines and thirty laymen, at Westminster. They had modified the thirty-nine articles, and had abolished the liturgy, substituting for it the directory, a general rule in which the details of the service were largely left to the discretion of individual ministers. The abolition of episcopacy was, of course, included in the requirements of the Puritans.

A little before the enactment of the Self-denying Ordinance Archbishop Laud was taken from the prison to the scaffold. He died by an ordinance of Parliament, under sentence of high treason. His last words were, "None can be more willing to send me out of life than I am desirous to go."

The decisive battle of the civil war was fought at

Naseby, in Northamptonshire, where the royalist army was utterly routed.

The victories of Montrose, who was six times successful in Scotland, for a while gave the king new hopes. On the other hand, Prince Rupert had made a poor defence of Bristol, which had fallen into the hands of Fairfax. The king was so vexed that he sent Rupert out of the kingdom.

Charles's affairs were now fast going to ruin. The Scotch seized Carlisle; and, marching southwards, besieged Hereford, which they were compelled to relinquish on the king's approach. This was the last gleam of success which shone upon the royal cause. Montrose was defeated at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk.

The Parliament not only refused the king's offers of treaty, but gave orders that his person should be guarded—in other words, taken into custody—in the event of his visiting them.

The king was now at Oxford. On the approach of Fairfax's army he left Oxford in company with Dr. Hudson and Mr. Ashburnham, and reached the Scottish camp at Newark. He hoped that the Scotch would the more favourably receive him as they were now somewhat ill-affected toward the Parliament, which was no longer a united body, but had split into the two factions of Presbyterians and Independents. They received him loyally, and offered to support him if he would sign the Solemn League. This he refused to do, and returned, by his own desire, to his English subjects. When the Scotch stipulated for the king's safety, the Parliament expressed indignation that any doubt should have been entertained about it. Being delivered by the Scotch to the English commissioners, Charles was conducted to confinement in Holmby House, Northamptonshire.

And now the plot thickened rapidly.

Under secret orders from Cromwell, Cornet Joyce arrested the king at Holmby, and took him to Triplow Heath, near Cambridge, where the army of Fairfax was encamped. Both Fairfax and the Parliament were utterly *astounded at this transaction.*

The Parliament was now divided against itself. The Presbyterians were for limited monarchy; the Independents, of which body Cromwell was the life and soul, were for the abolition of monarchy altogether. But the king was now in the hands of the Independents, and was carried about the kingdom with the army. He was allowed the visits of his friends, and the use of the liturgy; even Cromwell, with the rest, paid court to him. It should be understood, then, distinctly, that at this time, of the two factions into which the Parliament had split—*i.e.*, that of the Presbyterians and Independents,—the former held moderate counsels, and were not avowedly opposed to the king's interests, while they were also not capable of commanding the army; the latter held extreme views, and were the military adherents of Cromwell, and creatures of his bidding.

The leaders of the army, having established their power over the Parliament and the City of London, brought the king to Hampton Court. It seems credible that at this time Cromwell really desired to save the king, but that the duplicity of Charles—or rather we ought to say, perhaps, that deep-seated belief in his divine right, which seemed to render it impossible that he should at the same time think of preserving it and of keeping faith with those with whom he had to deal—rendered this more and more hopeless.

Charles escaped from Hampton Court, and found his way first to the Dowager Countess of Southampton, at Titchfield, and afterwards to Colonel Hammond, Governor of the Isle of Wight, and son of his favourite chaplain, Dr. Hammond, where he was kept in a sort of honourable confinement at Carisbrooke Castle.

Cromwell was now master of the Parliament. It remained to establish his power over the army.

A sect had arisen who called themselves Levellers. Their doctrine was, that, being the elect of God, and the salt of the earth, they were on a level in point of military rank and authority. Such notions, from a military point of view, could be regarded only as seditious. They were *put down by* the decision of Cromwell, who shot one

mutineer before the ranks, and struck such terror into the rest that they returned forthwith to their duty.

At the suggestion of Ireton, Cromwell called a council, which he opened with prayers from himself and the chief officers, for the purpose of bringing the king at once to justice.

Charles had sent from Carisbrooke an offer to resign the prerogatives of the command of the militia and the nomination to the high offices of State for his life, on the understanding that they should recur to his successor. The Parliament, influenced by the Independents and the army, set aside the offer, and sent four preliminary proposals:—1. To invest the Parliament with the supreme command of the army for twenty years. 2. To recall all his outstanding declarations and proclamations against it. 3. To cancel the Acts and Patents of Peerage which had passed the Great Seal since it had been carried from London by Lord Keeper Littleton, and to renounce the power of making peers without the consent of Parliament. 4. To give the two Houses the power of adjournment whenever they thought proper.

The king having refused these requests, the Parliament voted that he should not be communicated with any further, and that any one so communicating with him should be guilty of treason. This was in effect the abolition of the monarchy, and the king having made an unsuccessful attempt to escape from Carisbrooke, was kept in more rigorous confinement.

But the Scots, who had quarrelled with the Independents for their contempt of the Covenant, undertook to invade England on the king's behalf. The Duke of Hamilton crossed the border with a large but undisciplined army. He would gladly have sought the aid of Sir Marmaduke Langdale, who commanded the Royalists in the north of England, but durst not do so, as the Royalists would have nothing to say to the Covenant.

Cromwell first attacked Langdale at Preston in Lancashire, and then Hamilton at Uttoxeter. He defeated both, and took the latter prisoner. Cromwell followed up his advantage and joined Argyle in Scot-

land ; placing the power of the army in the hands of the Independents.

The last spark in the dying embers of the king's cause, was extinguished when Colchester was taken by Fairfax ; and Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle were executed for no other 'crime than having bravely defended their post.

The great crisis was now approaching.

The army set itself in opposition to the Parliament. The council of generals, the foremost being Ludlow and Ireton, demanded the punishment of the king for the lives lost in the late war. On the other hand there were not wanting men of intrepid spirit, such as Hollis, the leader of the Presbyterians, who resisted these military demands, and even required that those who had made them should be proclaimed traitors.

The army marched to London, and the Houses of Parliament were environed by armed troops. The members, not intimidated, passed a resolution by a large majority, that the concessions of the king were a ground of action forconcerting measures with a view to the settlement of the national affairs.

The next day Colonel Pride seized fifty-two members of the Presbyterian party, and had them conveyed to different quarters ; about one hundred and sixty more were soon afterwards excluded, and only fifty or sixty of the most violent Independents were permitted to enter the House. This proceeding was called Colonel Pride's purge ; the remnant, called the Rump, voted the former resolution of " non-address " to the king, and declared the royal overtures entirely unsatisfactory.

The generals had now gone so far, that the king's trial was necessitated.

A High Court of Justice was created, upon an entirely new construction, for the purpose of trying the king for treason. It was declared treason for a king to levy forces against the Parliament. The House of Peers rejected the vote, but the Commons, declaring the people to be the source of all constitutional power, resolved on the trial of Charles Stuart, King of England, as they called

him, with a curious combination of punctiliousness and contempt. He was brought from Carisbrooke to Hurst Castle, thence to St. James's and Windsor, and finally arrived at Whitehall on the 9th of January, 1649.

The High Court of Justice met in Westminster Hall. It consisted of 133 persons named by the Commons, of whom seventy sat upon an average. Cromwell, Ireton, Harrison, and the principal officers of the army were of course members. The judges having affirmed that it was contrary to law to try the king for treason, were simply discarded. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen President of the Court.

A remarkable anecdote is told of Lady Fairfax, who was present at the trial. When her husband's name was called by the crier, a voice answered, "He has too much wit to be here." When the charge was read by Cook, (who had been named solicitor of the people of England,) as being made by the people, the same voice replied, "not a tenth of them." Axtel, the guard of the Court, gave orders to fire into the box whence these interruptions had proceeded, when it was discovered that Lady Fairfax had had the courage so to offend.

The charge against Charles Stuart was, that he had abused to his own purposes of unlimited government the limited powers of sovereignty with which he had been intrusted.

Three times was Charles summoned before the Court. He appeared only to protest against its jurisdiction. He behaved to the last with kingly dignity. Against these proceedings the Scotch protested; the Dutch petitioned; the young Prince of Wales sent a blank sheet with his sign-manual and seal, on which the Court might order to be inscribed what terms they pleased as the price of the king's life.

It was all in vain. Three days were to pass, and then the sentence was to be executed. He passed the interval in reading and prayer. His family were permitted access to him. He was to be executed in front of the Royal Palace of Whitehall, that the triumph of *constitutional liberty* and law might be more signally apparent.

He found the scaffold, on to which he stepped out of a window, so surrounded by soldiers, as to make it impossible that he should be heard by the body of the people. He therefore addressed himself to the few who were nearest to him. In this last speech he declared himself innocent before the nation, though guilty as a sinner before God, and acknowledged the justice of his punishment as a requital for allowing an unjust sentence to take effect against the life of another—alluding to the execution of Strafford. He was attended by Bishop Juxon, who reminded him that “one stage more would carry him from this turbulent life to a crown of glory.” “I go,” replied the king, “from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown.” An executioner severed the head from the body at one blow. Another held it up before the crowd, with the words, “This is the head of a traitor.”

MAIN POINTS.

Spanish war. Charles's need of money. Independence of the Commons. Issue of Privy Seals. Offence of the Earl of Bristol. Buckingham impeached by the Commons. King's difficulties in raising money. French war. Siege of Rochelle. Petition of Rights. Tonnage and poundage. Strafford and Laud. Ship money. Case of Prynne. Hampden, Pym, and Cromwell. King's imposition of episcopacy on Scotland. The Solemn League and Covenant. Richelieu's support of the Covenanters. Treaty with the king's Scotch subjects. The Long Parliament. Strafford impeached. Laud impeached. Unanimity of Parliament. Puritans attack the Church. More frequent Parliaments. Trial and execution of Strafford. Parliament abolishes the Court of High Commission and the Star Chamber. Insurrection in Ireland. Cavaliers and Roundheads. King attacks the Commons. King refuses the Militia Bill, and moves northward. He is refused admittance into Hull. Civil war begins. Overtures of Parliament rejected by the king. King erects his standard at Nottingham. Leaders and movements of the Royal and Parliamentary forces. Battle of Edge-hill. Progress of Parliamentary campaign. Battle of Newbury. First mention of Oliver Cromwell. Uxbridge conference. Execution of Laud. Battle of Naseby. Arrest and confinement of Charles. Exorbitant demands of Parliament. Refusal of the king. Vain movement of the Scotch in the king's favour. Tumultuous proceedings of the Parliament. King sentenced by the High Court of Justice, and beheaded.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE COMMONWEALTH. A.D. 1649—A.D. 1660.

ON the death of the king the powers of Church and State were at an end. His rightful successor was a wanderer in Holland, France, and Jersey. The Parliament was the Government, but Cromwell was the soul of the Parliament. The army of the Independent faction numbered 50,000 men.

Both Scotland and Ireland were a source of disquiet to the government of the Republic. Since the defeats of Montrose and Hamilton the rule had been in the hands of Argyll and the Covenanters. They were staunch adherents to the monarchy, in spite of the overtures of the Parliament. Indeed the defence of the monarchy was one of the terms of the covenant. On the death of Charles I., therefore, they declared for his son and successor, Charles II., on condition of his subscribing to the covenant.

The Duke of Ormond, the Lord Lieutenant, had left Ireland after surrendering Dublin, Drogheda, Dundalk, and other strongholds to Colonel Jones, the parliamentary commander; but the Irish Catholics, under the Earl of Clanricarde, dreaded the power of the Parliament and preferred royalty. They accordingly invited the Duke of Ormond to return. He did so, and recaptured many of the garrisons, after having raised an army of 16,000 men.

But Cromwell, who had long entertained a wish for the Lord Lieutenancy, resolved personally to take the matters of Ireland in hand. His first act after receiving the appointment from the Parliament was to send over a reinforcement of 4000 men to Colonel Jones, who suddenly attacking Ormond near Dublin, gained a very decisive victory. From Dublin, where he was received with acclamations, Cromwell proceeded to Drogheda, which he took by assault, giving no quarter. The same policy of intimidation was pursued on the taking of Wexford. He gradually overran the whole island; and so desperate did the Irish themselves feel their case to be, that 40,000 men

applied for and received permission from Cromwell to leave their native land for foreign shores.

The Parliament next proceeded to deliberate upon sending a general into Scotland; and as Fairfax declined the command on principle, being averse to opposing the Presbyterians, the command devolved upon Cromwell, who at once crossed the border with 16,000 men.

Charles was meanwhile a miserable slave of the Covenanters, who made him sign an expression of contrition for his father's opposition to the covenant, deplored his mother's idolatry, and declaring that he would have enemies but those of the covenant. While they retained possession of his person, they held him in complete contempt.

Cromwell had been appointed Captain General of all the forces in England. He crossed the Tweed with 16,000 men, and approached the Scottish camp under Leal between Edinburgh and Leith. Leslie was strongly entrenched, and had removed from the district all provisions that could be of use to an invading army.

Having vainly endeavoured to bring Leslie to battle, Cromwell, harassed by want of provisions, retired to Dunbar, and was followed by Leslie, who had also taken the precaution of guarding the passes between that place and Berwick. Cromwell was rescued by the fanaticism of the Scottish clergy, who compelled Leslie to go forth again against Agag, or Cromwell, in the strength of the Lord. But the English were more than a match for the Scotch in the open plain. The Scots, nearly double the number of the invaders, were routed with great slaughter.

Cromwell took possession of Edinburgh and Leith but the winter was now at hand, and an ague which had seized him prevented him from prosecuting his advantage.

On the 1st of January, 1651, Charles was crowned with much ceremony at Scone, and soon persuaded the Scottish forces to make an invasion of England in his cause.

Cromwell left General Monk to settle matters in Scotland, and himself set off in pursuit of the Royalists.

Charles, when he reached Worcester, found himself at

appointed of his hopes that his subjects would flock to his standard on the march. On the other hand, Cromwell entered the town with an army of 30,000 men. The Scotch, after some hours' fighting, were put to the slaughter in the streets of the town, and those who escaped into the open country were set upon by the peasantry.

The escape of Charles from Worcester is one of the most romantic incidents of his reign. He left the town with fifty or sixty followers, but separated himself from them for the sake of better security. He found his way alone, by the Earl of Derby's directions, to a farm-house on the borders of Staffordshire, called Boscobel, and introduced himself to the farmer, Penderell. Penderell communicated the secret to his four brothers, and they kept it loyally. Though death was denounced against any who should conceal the king, with a large reward for his betrayal, they resolved to shelter him to the best of their ability. Accordingly, they dressed him in a woodman's clothes, and putting a bill into his hands set him to work to cut faggots. For twenty-four hours he was in an oak, under the branches of which he could see the soldiers of Cromwell passing to and fro in search of him.

Through many similar adventures he at last reached Shoreham, on the coast of Sussex, where he embarked in a collier, and forty-one days after the Battle of Worcester arrived safe at Fécamp in Normandy.

It deserves remark that never was the power of England so formidable to other countries as during the disturbances of the Commonwealth. It was a time when individual energy, talent, and daring were the passports to office and command.

The great Admiral Blake had defended the garrisons of Lyme and Taunton against the Royalists, and entered the naval profession when he was more than fifty years of age. A squadron had deserted to the king under Prince Rupert, and was supported by the King of Portugal. Blake attacked the squadron, which, by the king's help, made its escape. He then attacked the Portuguese ships, and carried off twenty ships richly laden. The King of Portugal sought and procured the renewal of his alliance with *England*.

The establishment of peace and subjection at home enabled the Parliament to turn their attention abroad.

A war was entered upon against the Dutch. Chief Justice St. John had been sent over to negotiate a coalition with the United Provinces. The Dutch would listen to nothing more than an alliance, and treated St. John with contumely. On his return to England he used his influence with Cromwell to induce him to declare war with the Dutch.

This was brought about indirectly. The Parliament passed the famous Navigation Act, which prohibited foreign vessels from bringing to English ports any thing but the productions of their own countries. This fell hardly upon the Dutch, who, beside their own cargoes had the carrying trade of the world.

English merchants complained of injuries from the Dutch, and letters of reprisal were granted. More than eighty Dutch ships were taken.

The English Admiral Blake and the Dutch Van Tromp happened to meet off Dover. Blake had only fifteen ships reinforced with eight more after the battle had begun, under Captain Bourne. The Dutch vessels numbered forty-two. After five hours' fighting Blake sunk one ship of the enemy and captured another. Night stopped the fighting and under cover of the darkness the Dutch hauled off the coast of Holland.

The Dutch Pensionary Paw was despatched to conciliate matters in England, but the Parliament would hear of nothing short of indemnification for all past losses sustained by the English. The war, therefore, continued and several naval engagements followed.

Near Plymouth Sir George Ayscue, with forty ships engaged the famous De Ruyter with fifty, besides thirty merchantmen. Neither side could claim the victory.

Next month Blake, seconded by Bourne and Penn, encountered a Dutch squadron under De Witt and De Ruyter, in which the Dutch were again worsted, and retired.

Later in the year the Dutch Admiral Van Tromp, seconded by De Ruyter, fell in with Blake off the Goodwin Sands; the English fleet was inferior to the enemy,

Blake determined to fight. The victory was gained by the Dutch, and Van Tromp fastened a broom to his mast-head as if his intention were to sweep all English ships off the face of the sea.

Great preparations were now made in England to retrieve this dishonour. A fleet of eighty sail put to sea, under command of Blake and Monk, who had been summoned from Scotland. A Dutch fleet of seventy-six vessels was descried in the month of February, 1653, with a convoy of three hundred merchantmen. Van Tromp and De Ruyter commanded the Dutch. Three days did the action continue; the Dutch were worsted; but their admiral made a skilful retreat, and saved all his merchantmen but thirty; he lost, however, eleven ships of war; 2000 men were killed, and about 1500 taken prisoners. The English lost but one ship; but the number of lives lost was nearly equal to that of the enemy.

Meanwhile Cromwell effected one of the most extraordinary revolutions in history. He saw that the Parliament had grown exceedingly jealous of his own power, and before it should be too late he determined to anticipate any proceedings against him. His project comprised nothing less than the abolition of the present Parliament. So he instigated the council of general officers to press them for the payment of arrears of salary to the army; and then, reminding them how many years they had sat, suggested to them the propriety of resigning their seats and establishing that government of perfect freedom and equality which they had long promised to the people.

The Parliament, little relishing such dictation, came to the resolution not to dissolve themselves, but to proceed to fill up the vacant seats by re-elections. Cromwell, therefore, went down to the House, and leaving his force of 300 soldiers outside, took his seat. The debate went on. He rose to speak. In his address, he vilified the members separately and collectively, charging them with profanity and oppression. The musketeers poured in, "Take away that bauble," said he, pointing to the mace before the speaker. The hall was soon cleared, and

Cromwell locking the door, carried away the key. This was in April 1653.

However indignant the Parliament might be, the people applauded and congratulated Cromwell on his measure. He would keep up a show, however, of civil government. So on his own responsibility he summoned a Parliament of 128 persons from different towns and counties of England, five from Scotland, and six from Ireland. This he called a Parliament. Some people called it the "Little Parliament." Others, with more personality, called it the Barebone Parliament, from one Barebone, leather-seller in London, who went by the name of Prae God Barebone: famous for his prayers and religious harangues among a body, the bulk of whom were Anabaptist Independents, and Fifth Monarchy Men. The Barebone Parliament was more unruly than Cromwell had anticipated; so he resolved to bring that also to a close. This time he set to work with the members in private. Accordingly, Sydenham, an Independent, proposed to the House to resign their authority into the hands of Cromwell. Rouse, the speaker, left the chair, and was followed by the majority of the House. A few who delayed to move found that a party of soldiers under a Colonel White were ready to quicken their movements.

A deed was framed and signed by the majority of the House, which, after a little hypocritical show of reluctance, Cromwell accepted. It was called an "Instrument of Government." By this deed Cromwell received the title of "His Highness the Lord Protector," and a Council of not more than twenty-one nor less than thirteen was appointed to assist him in the government. The protector was, however, bound to call a Parliament once in three years, and to allow them to sit uninterruptedly for three months. All bills passed by them were to be presented to the protector for his assent, but if this were not given within twenty days they were to pass into law on the authority of Parliament alone. A standing army for Great Britain and Ireland was to consist of 20,000 foot and 10,000 horse. The protectorship was to be for life, and on the death of Cromwell it was to be filled up by the council.

The naval engagements with the Dutch were brought to a close by an action in which Van Tromp was shot in 1658. The English command, in the absence of Blake from illness, had devolved on Penn and Monk. A defensive alliance was formed between England and the United Provinces.

The new Parliament as summoned by the protector met in 1654. Cromwell soon found that they were not disposed to allow his position and proceedings to pass unchallenged. They chose Lenthal for their speaker, and having listened to a rambling speech of three hours' duration from the lord protector (who was notorious for his inability in this respect), proceeded to exercise such freedom of debate as roused the anxiety of the protector. He summoned them to a separate chamber—advised them not to dispute the fundamentals of the new constitution, and reminded them that their title was very like his own. He even compelled them to subscribe a promise that they would make no alteration in the form of government, adopting his usual mode of military coercion, and allowing none but subscribing members to enter the House. After which he gave them another of his tedious and tortuous speeches and dismissed them.

He then parcelled the kingdom into military districts, with the consent of the Council, under major-generals and other commissioners, who should be empowered to levy on all suspected of royalist proclivities the tenth-penny as a "decimation" tax, to pay for the expenses to which their disaffected spirit subjected the Government.

But the displeasure of the Parliament was raised against France for the protection which the French Court had extended to Charles in his exile. Louis XIV. was king, but, being as yet a minor, the regency was exercised by his mother, Anne of Austria; and Cardinal Mazarin had succeeded Richelieu in the ministry. Charles was held in little account at the French Court, and had retired to Cologne, where he lived on a small pension from the French and some contributions from his English friends.

Spain and France were at war, and both sought the

alliance of Cromwell. The hope of wealth and reputation from the weakness and riches of Spain, now mistress of the New World, induced him to side with France. He also held the extreme popery of the Spaniards and the system of their Inquisition in extreme abhorrence.

A fleet of thirty ships, under Blake, reached Algiers; by way of reprisal upon the Dey for acts of his piratical subjects, the Admiral sent his men in long-boats into the harbour and burnt the whole Algerine flotilla.

Another squadron, under Penn and Venables, reached the West Indies; they were repulsed from St. Domingo, but seized Jamaica. On their return the protector threw both admirals into the Tower.

The Spaniards prepared for active war. Blake and Montague lay off Cadiz, in hope of intercepting the rich merchantmen, but were obliged, by want of water, to make for Portugal. Stayner, who had been left behind, was fortunate enough to seize two galleons, out of which he took money to the amount of nearly two million Spanish pieces of eight.

Blake's last achievement was a victory over the Spanish squadron at Santa Cruz, one of the Canary Islands. He was carried by a strong wind into the harbour and under the guns of the forts into the thick of the enemy. The action lasted four hours, and at the end of the time a change of wind brought his ships safely back to sea. The great admiral was now dying of dropsy and scurvy. He returned to England with all despatch, that he might die at home.

It was Cromwell's boast that he would make the English name as much respected as was ever that of Rome; and certainly the period of the Republic was one of national power and greatness beyond all former periods. Even Scotland and Ireland were held in subjection; the former by the army and a civil administration under a Council of State and seven judges; the latter was held under military rule by Fleetwood, (who had married Cromwell's daughter after the death of her first husband, Ireton), and afterwards by Henry Cromwell, the protector's *second son*.

In summoning the Parliament of 1656, Cromwell had again recourse to military coercion, and would allow none to enter the House who could not show a warrant of admittance from his own Council.

And now the protector began to aspire to the crown. Alderman Pack made a motion for investing Cromwell with the dignity of king. The House was thrown into commotion, and the chief opponents to the measure were found to be Cromwell's generals, particularly Lambert, who looked to succeeding Cromwell as protector. Yet the offer of the crown was made, and a committee appointed to urge it on the protector's acceptance. Colonel Pride procured a counter petition, and both Desborough, who had married his sister, and Fleetwood, his son in-law, were strong in their feeling against such a step. But the "humble petition and advice," as it was called, became the basis of the republic, instead of the former "instrument of government." The protector was now invested, instead of the Council, with the privilege of appointing his own successor. He had a perpetual revenue granted him, and the privilege of forming a new House, whose position and powers should resemble those of the former peers, and who should hold their places for life. As if the power of the protector had not before been fully established, he was solemnly inaugurated anew in Westminster Hall.

Richard, his eldest son, was brought forward, and regarded as heir to the protectorship. Of his two unmarried daughters, one was now married to the Earl of Warwick, the other to Viscount Fauconberg.

When the Parliament assembled in 1658 it consisted of two Houses—the Commons, and Cromwell's Peers, sixty in number. They consisted of five or six ancient peers, who, though summoned, were too proud to attend; several men of distinction, and some soldiers of fortune, who had risen from the lowest ranks. It would seem that Cromwell rather weakened his cause in the lower House by draughting his warmest supporters to the upper; so, in about three weeks from its meeting, he dissolved the Parliament, treating them to a long and roundabout speech of *disapproval*.

The protector's foreign schemes of conquest were renewed.

He sent Reynolds to the Low Countries, which were now in the hands of the Spaniards, with 6000 men, to join the French general, Turenne. While laying siege to Dunkirk, the allies were attacked by the Spaniards, but repulsed them, and Dunkirk, which soon afterwards surrendered, was ceded to England. Cromwell regarded the possession of Dunkirk only as an instalment of further acquisitions in the Low Countries.

But Cromwell's position at home was becoming precarious. His wars had exhausted his exchequer and brought him into debt. The Royalists were in agitation. Ormond had returned to England, and the Presbyterians had always leaned to the monarchy. With promptitude the protector instituted a high court of justice; Ormond fled the country; many were seized and thrown into prison; Sir Henry Slingsby and Dr. Hewett were condemned and beheaded.

The extreme religionists in the army seemed infected with a spirit of discontent, and Cromwell felt so convinced of the existence of a wide-spread desire for the termination of his life and power, that he never moved about without weapons of all kinds, a body-guard in public, and even defensive armour beneath his dress. He would never stay in the same place longer than was absolutely necessary, nor sleep more than three nights in the same chamber.

A domestic sorrow was added to his anxiety, in the death of Mrs. Claypole, his favourite daughter.

He was seized with a slow fever, which soon became tertian ague, under which he sank so rapidly that the physicians felt bound to declare to the Council his speedy dissolution. The Council, in alarm, sent a deputation to know his pleasure; but consciousness had left him. The question was put to him whether he desired that his son, Richard, should succeed him as protector. He answered, or seemed to answer, by some dubious sign of assent. On the 3rd of September, 1658, being the anniversary of his two principal battles—Dunbar and Worcester—he died in the

sixtieth year of his age. With marvellous unanimity the Council, the army, the fleet, his own relatives, tendered their allegiance to Richard. On the other hand, a few powerful individuals were opposed to him, among whom were his brother-in-law Fleetwood and General Lambert. Richard had nothing of his father's strength of character. He was persuaded to sign his renunciation of the protectorship and the dissolution of the Parliament. His brother Henry, who had, with more capacity, ruled the affairs of Ireland, returned to England. Both died in England, the latter in 1674, the former in 1712, toward the end of Queen Anne's reign, at his farm at Cheshunt, in extreme old age.

MAIN POINTS.

Covenanters declare for Charles. Duke of Ormond in Ireland. Cromwell's treatment of Ireland. Cromwell captain-general. Cromwell defeats Leslie in Scotland. Charles crowned at Scone. Battle of Worcester. Charles's escape and adventures. He goes to Normandy. Power of the Commonwealth. Admiral Blake. War with the Dutch. Blake and Van Tromp. Dutch Admirals De Witt and De Ruyter. Victory of the Dutch. Doubtful victory of the English. Cromwell dissolves the Parliament. Barebone Parliament. Resignation of the Barebone Parliament. "The Instrument of Government." His highness the Lord Protector. Provisions for a parliament. Standing army. Last Naval action with the Dutch. Generals and Commissioners. "Decimation tax." Relations to Spain and France. West Indian expedition. Blake's last achievement. Parliament of 1656. Alderman Pack's motion. "The Humble Petition and Advice." Consummation of Cromwell's power. War of the Low Countries. Acquisition of Dunkirk. Difficulties of Cromwell. His suspicion. Seized with fever. Nomination of Cromwell's son, Richard. Death of Cromwell. Character of Richard.

CHAPTER XXX.

HOUSE OF STUART.

CHARLES II. A.D. 1660—A.D. 1685.

ON the death of Cromwell, the Council of Generals found *themselves in possession of supreme power*. They resolved,

after much debate to re-summon the Long Parliament.

A rivalry soon became manifest between the legislative and the military council. All along, as we have seen, the Independents, of whom the Parliament was mainly composed, were quite as obnoxious to the Presbyterians as the Royalists. Indeed the bulk of the Presbyterians were Royalists with moderate views of the king's prerogative.

Things took place in favour of royalty, and for the dissolution of the Rump Parliament, as it was called: but only one of these led to any result of importance. George Booth seized Chester, but was ejected and put the town by General Lambert, who proceeded to fill it prisons with those whom he suspected or knew to be disaffected to the generals. This alarmed the Parliament, who voted that they would have no more general officer. The generals, on the other hand, resolved to have another Parliament, which they summarily expelled, and elected a body of persons which they called a Committee of Safety.

The worst confusion was apprehended, when a turn the king's affairs took place which speedily led to restoration. General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland, protested against the ejectment of the Parliament by the generals. His conduct was full of dissimulation; nor is it possible altogether to interpret it—he soon or to what extent he had determined to espouse the king's interests, or what place he purposed to find for his own. He heard that Lambert was marching northward; he himself moved towards London; and everywhere the gentry of the counties through which he passed expressed their hope that he would take upon himself the settlement of the nation. He was introduced into the House of Parliament, and Lenthal, the Speaker, gave him the thanks for his eminent services to his country. At first Monk seemed entirely submissive to the Parliament, but after a few days he ordered them to issue writs for the assembling of a new Parliament. He invited back the Presbyterian members who had been excluded by Cromwell.

well, and it soon appeared that these would be in the majority. Most of the Independents retired altogether.

The Parliament being dissolved, a Council of State was appointed, who renewed Monk's commission, gave him ampler powers, and placed the fleet as well as the army in the joint hands of Monk and Montague, a Royalist.

A new Parliament met, composed of Cavaliers and Presbyterians. To the House so constituted, General Monk one day intimated that a Sir John Grenville, a servant of the king, was at the door of the house with a despatch from his Majesty. This gentleman Monk had himself sent to Charles with the earnest advice that he would at once quit the Spanish territory, and retire for greater safety to Holland. He feared that the king might be seized to enable Spain to recover Jamaica. Charles accordingly fled from Brussels to Breda. The announcement of the despatch was received by the Council with acclamations of welcome. When read it was found to consist of a letter and a declaration. It promised an amnesty with such reservations or exceptions only as Parliament should thereafter make, into whose hands it placed all matters relating to conscience and property. It also promised all arrears of pay to the soldiers, and a continuance of the same rate of pay for the future.

It was voted that the king should be proclaimed with all solemnity at Whitehall and at Temple Bar, and a committee of both houses was sent to invite His Majesty to return to his government.

The Duke of York commanded the fleet which was sent to convoy Charles home, and the king was met by General Monk, whom he cordially embraced, at Dover, at which place he landed on his own birthday, May 29, 1660.

Charles II. was thirty years of age when, as a returned exile, he mounted the throne of England. His gay and courtly manner made him personally popular, and the manners of the Cavaliers began to supplant those of the Puritans in the fashions of the day.

At first the restored king seemed bent on drawing no religious distinctions in reference to those whom he promoted to office or admitted near his person. Calamy

and Baxter, Presbyterian clergymen, were among the king's chaplains. Admiral Montague was created Earl of Sandwich, and General Monk Duke of Albemarle; Sir Edward Hyde, Chancellor and Prime Minister.

One of the king's first acts was to grant a general pardon, but those were excepted who had taken an immediate part, whether as judges or otherwise, in the late king's death. Even Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and others now dead, were attainted, and their estates forfeited.

The Parliament voted a fixed revenue to the Crown of 1,200,000*l.* a year, a greater sum than had ever been in the hands of a monarch of England.

The last relic of the feudal system was abolished—the tenure of lands by knight service and its accompaniments. In lieu of the fees so arising, an hereditary excise duty was granted to the crown on liquors, beer, and tea. Tonnage and poundage were granted to the king for his life.

After the session came on the business of the trial of the regicides.

A commission of thirty-four was appointed to carry on the trial. Six of the late king's judges—Harrison, Scot, Carew, Clements, Jones, and Scrope—were condemned and executed. Along with them were executed Axtel, who had guarded the High Court of Justice; Hacker, who commanded on the day of the king's execution; Cook, the solicitor of the people of England; and Hugh Peters, a preacher, who had instigated the deed by his religious harangues.

On the anniversary of the late king's execution, the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were exhumed, hanged at Tyburn, and afterwards beheaded, the heads being fixed on Westminster Hall.

In December, 1660, the king, with gracious speech, dissolved the Parliament. The army was disbanded—1000 horse and 4000 foot being retained, the nucleus of a standing army in England; for with the exception of the army of the Commonwealth, the battles of England previously to this time had been fought with train-bands and militia men.

It was by the advice of the Earl of Clarendon, whose daughter, Anne Hyde, had become the wife of the Duke of York and Albany, afterwards James II., that Charles restored the bishops. The nine who were alive were at once reinstated in their sees. The ejected clergy were brought back and the liturgy was resumed.

In Scotland, too, things were put back into their former state, including the indirect re-establishment of episcopacy by abrogating the laws in favour of presbytery. Sharp, who had been deputed by the Presbyterians to conduct their case with the king, abandoned his party, and, as a reward, was made Archbishop of St. Andrews.

The Marquis of Argyle, though he had himself crowned Charles at Scone, was beheaded on the charge of treason, very inadequately proved.

In England the question was agitated so vehemently between the episcopacy and the presbytery that a conference was called to meet at the Savoy between twelve bishops and an equal number of Presbyterian leaders. The conference lasted three months, from April to July in 1661, but with no practical result, except that of confirming each party in its peculiar tenets. The matter was helped on to a settlement by the new Parliament, which showed little disposition to coquetry with Presbyterianism. The covenant, the act for erecting the high Court of Justice, and that which declared England a Commonwealth, were ordered to be publicly burnt by the common hangman. The Parliament also disclaimed all military authority, even to the extent of taking up arms defensively against the king.

The Corporation Act compelled all officers of corporate bodies to receive the Eucharist according to the form of the Church of England, to renounce the covenant, and take the oath of non-resistance to the king's authority however exercised.

In the following year, 1662, the Act of Uniformity was passed. By this it was required that every minister should receive Episcopal ordination, declare his assent to every thing contained in the Book of Common Prayer, *take the oath of canonical obedience to the bishop, abjure*

the covenant, and renounce the right, on any ground whatever, to take up arms against the king.

The protector had made an alliance with Portugal; this was now renewed and sealed by the marriage of the king with Catherine of Braganza, whose portion was 500,000*l.* with the settlements of Tangier in Morocco, and Bombay in the East Indies. This event gave England the first footing in India. The marriage took place at Portsmouth in private, according to the rites of the Roman Catholic Church.

Lambert and Vane were brought to trial; the latter for his opposition to the monarchy as member of the Council of State and Secretary of the Navy after the late king's execution. He pleaded in his own defence his duty to his country, whether the office were held under a commonwealth or a monarchy, but he was condemned to death; and lest his eloquence, which was considerable, should take effect upon the spectators, the sound of his voice was drowned by drummers placed in the vicinity of the scaffold. Lambert was found guilty, but his life was spared, the judges declaring that Vane would have been spared also had his behaviour been more submissive. Lambert retired to Guernsey, where he died thirty years afterwards as a Roman Catholic.

The king's extravagant and licentious life brought him deeply into debt. The portion of Catherine was soon exhausted, and he was compelled to raise money as best he could.

Dunkirk, which had been acquired by Oliver Cromwell, he sold to the French king for what was considered at the time the trifling sum of 400,000*l.* As the place, however, cost Charles 120,000*l.* a year to keep up, it does not seem to have been commercially an unprofitable transaction. It was, however, a great acquisition to the French king.

A supplement was added to the Act of Uniformity in the Conventicle Act. Where more than five persons, unless they were of the same household, assembled for public worship, every one of them was liable to the penalty of 5*l.*, or to be imprisoned for three months; for the second offence the penalty was 10*l.*, or imprisonment

for six months; and for the third, 100*l.*, or transportation for seven years.

A rivalry and jealousy sprang up against the Dutch, who were complained of as interfering with the commerce of England. The Duke of York was in favour of war with Holland; which was formally declared in 1665, and he was himself appointed admiral of the fleet. Under him served Prince Rupert and the Earl of Sandwich. The Duke of York is said by Hume to have introduced the mode of fighting in line of battle. The Dutch admiral Opdam was defeated, and the jealousy both of France and Denmark was excited by the victory. The summer of 1665 was a deadly season in London. The plague fell upon the city. Not less than 100,000 persons are computed to have fallen victims to it in the course of the year, the rate of mortality being in the month of September 10,000 a week.

In this year an act was passed against Dissenters called the Five Mile Act, which prohibited Nonconformist teachers to reside within five miles of any corporate town, or the places in which they had formerly preached, under penalty of 40*l.* and six months' imprisonment.

The Parliament had voted the king a grant of a million and a quarter, to be levied in two years by monthly assessments. It was urgently required, for the combined fleets of France and Holland were on their way to the English shores; but Charles would rather spend money on his personal pleasures than on the requirements of his kingdom, and the English fleet was not what it ought to have been. Old vessels ill-found were hastily sent to sea, and after all were far outnumbered by the enemy.

The Duke of Albemarle and Prince Rupert commanded the English fleet of seventy-four ships.

The Duke of Beaufort, the French admiral, brought more than forty sail.

A Dutch fleet of more than eighty sail approached, under the commands of De Ruyter and Tromp, the son of the former admiral; nevertheless this engagement ended in the complete defeat of the Dutch.

Meanwhile broke out the great fire of London, which

raged for three days and three nights, and destroyed about 13,000 houses. The dry season (it was in the month of September), and the circumstance that the houses were mostly built of wood, together with a strong east wind, helped to give an irresistible force to the flames. Although much property was of course destroyed, it cannot be doubted that this disaster was in the end beneficial. Wider streets and more substantial dwellings were the results, and the plague has disappeared altogether. The inscription on the monument erected to commemorate the fire, ascribed its origin to the Papists, a statement which had no foundation beyond popular dislike and suspicion.

De Witt at this time governed the Dutch Republic. He saw a favourable opportunity of retrieving his country's defeats. Negotiations were pending at Breda. These he contrived to protract, and a Dutch fleet under De Ruyter was sent into the Thames. They broke the chain across the Medway and took Sheerness. The utmost fears were entertained lest they should attack London itself, but they sailed no higher than Tilbury, whence they were repulsed, the main body having sailed in different squadrons to Harwich, Portsmouth, and Plymouth, at which places nothing important was effected.

The treaty of peace was signed at Breda in 1667, and one result was the cession to England of New York.

The people were dissatisfied with the war, and Lord Clarendon was victimized to appease them, as if he had been the cause of ill-success in a war which he desired to prevent before it broke out, but vigorously sustained when it had once begun. He was impeached in the Commons, and retired to Calais under the king's commands, who had no liking for him. This is little to be wondered at, for Clarendon was no panderer to the king's amusements. He lived for a time at Montpelier and afterwards at Rouen, employing the leisure of his exile on his "History of the Civil Wars."

To Clarendon succeeded the Cabal Ministry, so called from the fortuitous circumstance that their initial letters formed the word Cabal—Sir Thomas Clifford, Lord Ashley,

the Duke of Buckingham, Lord Arlington, the Earl of Lauderdale.

Louis XIV. was now on the throne of France. Ambitious and magnificent, he was the first monarch of his day. The weakness of Spain tempted him to try the conquest of the Spanish Netherlands, to which he laid claim in right of his wife. He took Lisle, Courtrai, and other cities, and was proceeding on his career of conquest, when Sir William Temple, the British Minister at Brussels, urged on the home government the expediency of an alliance with the Dutch to stop the progress of the French king. He was sent to the Hague, and under the recommendation of De Witt, the chief minister of the Republic, an alliance was made between England and Holland. Sweden having joined the league, it became known as the triple alliance. Louis retreated, and a treaty was signed at Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Louis was to retain the conquered towns, and Spain to be guaranteed in the possession of the rest of Flanders.

But the personal policy of Charles was very different. He was always wanting money, and disliked exceedingly his dependence on the Parliament. He made secret overtures to Louis to join the French against the Dutch, if he were supplied with money enough from France to render him independent of Parliament.

By the agency of the Duchess of Orleans, Charles's sister, a secret treaty was signed at Dover between England and France, in which Charles also undertook to make public profession of the Roman Catholic religion. Three millions of livres a year and an army of 6000 men, in the event of an insurrection in his own dominions, were the terms promised by France in return for Charles's support of the Bourbon interest. The change of religion was allowed to remain for the present a matter of tacit understanding. Of the ministers, Clifford and Arlington alone were cognizant of this part of the stipulation.

Another bond of union was formed by Louis. He persuaded the Duchess of Orleans to take to England a young French lady, with whom he seems to have foreseen

that Charles would become enamoured. This was Mademoiselle Querouaille, whom Charles created Duchess of Portsmouth.

The Parliament, ignorant of the king's machinations, voted him considerable supplies, after which it was prorogued.

And now the Cabal cabinet did all in their power to bring on war with the Dutch.

Temple, the ambassador, was recalled, and Dowling, personally unpopular with the Dutch, sent over in his stead.

Funds were wanted. The ministry recommended the seizure of the exchequer funds, which had been advanced to the Government by the bankers on the security of the taxes, and also announced that the interest without the principal would for the present be paid to the depositors. The loss of the public credit and extensive private ruin were the immediate results.

In 1672, England and France declared war against Holland. The Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, and the English under the Duke of York, met in a desperate action off the coast of Suffolk. The French ships kept aloof. The Earl of Sandwich was killed. The action was continued till night, when the Dutch retired.

On land Louis overran Holland. The only hope of the Dutch was in young William, Prince of Orange, afterwards William III. of England, now twenty-two years of age, who commanded the little army of the Republic. Amsterdam alone seemed determined to hold out, though the Dutch everywhere opened the sluices or cut through the dykes, which walled out the sea, so as to lay their country under an inundation rather than surrender it to the French.

But the Dutch were quarrelling among themselves. In jealousy against the young prince, the burgomasters had signed an edict, excluding him from all share in the administration. De Witt, the grand pensionary of Holland, was the determined supporter of this edict; but the cities would tolerate it no longer, and rising in arms, compelled the magistrates to recognise the authority of the young Prince of Orange, and the brothers De Witt were massacred in their resentment by the populace.

On his part the prince exhorted them to prepare for resistance, to reject all overtures of the French, and if necessary, give back their country to the sea from which it had been reclaimed, and themselves seek a new home in their settlements in the Indies. Louis retired from a country in which so little seemed to be gained.

When the Parliament met in 1673, much disaffection was naturally felt against the king for his conduct in regard to the Dutch war. In home matters, the prerogative of indulgence, by which the king claimed the power of waiving penalties enforced by the law, especially in matters of religion, and so virtually annulling the law altogether, called forth their strong remonstrance. By the advice of his ministers, the king recalled his declaration on this point, and a law was passed this session, known as the Test Act, by which all persons holding public office were compelled to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, to receive the communion in the Established Church, and to renounce transubstantiation. The Duke of York was in consequence thrown out of command, for he had already avowed himself a Roman Catholic, and Prince Rupert succeeded him in command of the fleet.

About this time, to the annoyance of the country, the Duke of York married for his second wife, Mary, a princess of the House of Modena, a Catholic, and in close alliance with France.

The expenses of a standing army also were regarded as so burdensome, that except under the heaviest pressure of the Dutch war, the Parliament declined to vote any more supplies. In this state of things it was dissolved by the king.

Ever since the fire of London, the popular feeling against the Romanists had been growing stronger, and, with or without reason, they became objects of general suspicion throughout the country.

As the king was walking in the park, a chemist called Kirby accosted him with these words, "Sir, keep within the company, your enemies have a design upon your life, and you may be shot in this very walk."

Kirby being questioned, said, that Dr. Tongue, 

the rector of St. Michael's Wood-street, had told him that two persons named Grove and Pickering, were engaged to assassinate the king, and that Sir George Wake-man, the king's physician, had undertaken to poison him. Tongue was introduced to the king, and by him referred to the lord treasurer, Danby. He produced a bundle of papers, which he said had been thrust under his door, and he afterwards said that he knew the writer of them, who was most anxious that his name should be kept secret, as in the case of its becoming known he would fall a victim to the Jesuits.

The king treated the matter very lightly; but Dr. Tongue called again on the lord treasurer, and said that a packet had been sent that evening by post to Beding-field at Windsor, being posted at that same town. Beding-field was a Jesuit, and confessor to the Duke of York. This was so far true; but the duke had already shown the letters to the king, and expressed his opinion that they were forgeries.

And now the time was ripe for the appearance upon the scene of one who had been the contriver of these preliminary agitations. This was Titus Oates. The antecedents of Oates were most unfavourable; he had been indicted for forgery, was afterwards a chaplain on board a man-of-war, and dismissed for serious offences; he then studied as a professed Roman Catholic at the English seminary at St. Omer. He was at this time in such indigence as to be supported by Kirby with daily food. The first step taken by Oates was to go before a noted and active justice, Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey. He deposed to a plan of the Jesuits to shoot the king as a heretic, Grove and Pickering being their agents, and to offer the crown, with the sanction of the pope, to the Duke of York, and that if he refused it, "to pot James must go."

In consequence of this active part taken by Oates he became wonderfully popular. Danby, too, was a bitter opponent of the French and Catholic interest at Court.

A number of Jesuits named by Oates were taken into custody. One of these was Coleman, secretary to the late *Duchess of York*, and among his papers were found copies

(spurious or genuine) of letters from Père la Chaise, the confessor of Louis XIV., and other foreign ecclesiastics of eminence, who, according to Oates, had forwarded 10,000*l.* to London as a reward for the assassination of the Black Bastard, as the Jesuits were reported commonly to call the king. These papers, whatever they may have been, did not tally with Oates's outline of the Jesuit plan. And Oates had over and over again contradicted himself in giving evidence. Yet the people in their horror and hatred of popery would make no distinctions. Their feelings were further exasperated by an event which they referred to the popish party. Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey had been found murdered in a ditch near Primrose Hill, his own sword plunged into his body, his hands wearing rings, and his pockets containing money. It was evident that no common robbers had done the deed. Who could have done it? Of course the Jesuits, (such was the line of the popular reasoning,) in return for the acceptance of Oates's evidence against themselves.

The matter was further aggravated by Lord Danby, who noticed it in Parliament.

Such was the excitement of popular feeling, that a solemn fast was appointed. The Catholic Lords Powys, Stafford, Arundel, Petre, and Belasyse, were committed to the Tower and impeached for high treason. Both Houses voted that there had been and still existed a damnable and hellish plot. Oates was universally idolized, and received a pension of 1200*l.* a year with rooms in Whitehall.

Such depositions as those of Oates, and the reception they met with, encouraged more. William Bedloe was at his own desire arrested at Bristol and taken to London, where he deposed before the council that he had seen the body of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey at Somerset House, the queen's residence, and that one of Lord Belasyse's servants had offered him four thousand pounds to carry it off. Other witnesses accused the queen herself; the Commons countenanced, the Lords repudiated the last accusation.

After the dissolution of the Cabal the Earl of Danby became prime minister; but he was strongly suspected of

communicating with the French king on the subject of further loans of money, and this hastened his downfall. The Peers were as jealous of him as the Commons were, and he was committed to the Tower.

Sir William Temple succeeded him in the king's confidence. His scheme was to appoint a council of thirty to stand between the king and the Parliament, with which Charles was continually at variance. The scheme, however, did little good. Of the men associated with Temple the most able was Viscount Halifax. As the policy of himself and his friends was as far as possible to keep peace and preserve neutrality between the great parties of the State, they received the appellation of Trimmers, which they were in no way concerned to disown.

The year 1679 is illustrious in our annals as that in which the Habeas Corpus Act was passed. Arbitrary imprisonment of freemen had been provided against by Magna Charta, and the principle had been re-affirmed by the Petition of Right. The object of the present act was especially to prevent all evasion or delay from ministers or judges. The main provisions of Habeas Corpus are that none shall be sent to prison beyond the sea, that no judge shall refuse to any prisoner a writ of Habeas Corpus, which is directed to the gaoler, ordering him to produce the prisoner's body in court and certify the cause of his imprisonment; that every prisoner shall be indicted in the first term after his commitment, and brought to trial in the term following; and that no man having been enlarged by order of the court can be recommitted for the same offence.

The prosecution of the Roman Catholics continued. As in former cases Oates and Bedloe were the accusers, and Whitebread, the principal of the Jesuits, with four of the order, and Langhorne, a lawyer, who managed their concerns, were condemned and executed.

Against the Duke of York, who, since Charles had no legitimate children, was heir to the throne, the tide of popular feeling ran so strong that a bill was brought into the Commons to exclude him from the succession. It was warmly contested by the Whigs and Tories, which names now first came into vogue. The Whigs represented the

Roundheads, the Tories the Cavaliers of the preceding reign. The origin of the terms is said to be as follows:—Toree meant in Irish “Give me,” a name applied to the robbers of the woods and bogs. Whig was the same as whey or sour milk, given by the Cavaliers as an opprobrious epithet to the sour-visaged Puritans.

The Bill of Exclusion passed the Commons by a large majority, but was thrown out by the Lords, influenced by the oratory of Halifax.

Disturbances were rife in Scotland. Archbishop Sharpe, the Scotch primate, travelling in his coach with his daughter, was waylaid by a band of Covenanters and stabbed to death. The military were ordered to disperse all conventicles, a service in which Graham of Claverhouse, with his dragoons, signalized themselves greatly. At Drumclog his troops were repulsed, and the Covenanters pushed into Glasgow, which they seized, denouncing the king's supremacy, popery, prelacy, and a popish successor to the crown. They raised 8000 men, but were put to the rout by the Duke of Monmouth (an illegitimate son of Charles II.) in a battle at Bothwell Bridge.

This proceeding of the Covenanters brought down worse trouble upon themselves, for the Duke of York was sent to Scotland as commissioner, and having a mortal hatred and contempt of the Covenanters, took pleasure in treating them to the thumbscrew and boot—the latter being a boot of stout leather into which wedges were driven between the leather and the leg of the unfortunate Covenanter. These persecutions led to large emigrations of the Scotch to Barbadoes and New England. The most extreme of these Covenanters called themselves Cameronians.

An obscure plot was next set on foot by one Dangerfield, a more villainous character than even Oates and Bedloe. It goes in history by the name of the Meal Tub Plot, from the receptacle in which the papers relating to it were discovered. It is probable that Dangerfield would have accused either side to suit his purpose; however, he chimed in with the popular credulity as being the better speculation, and the Earl of Castlemaine and Lady Powis were sent to the Tower in consequence of his depositions.

The story of Fitzharris is worth telling, because it may serve as a sample of the kind of plotting and libelling which were in vogue at this time, and of the relation in which the different powers of the realm stood to one another. Fitzharris was an Irish Roman Catholic, an adherent of the Duchess of Portsmouth, the king's mistress. He employed a Scotchman named Everard to write a libel against the king and the Duke of York; but he had unwittingly employed the wrong man, for Everard was a spy of the opposite party. So, instead of aiding Fitzharris, he reported him to the Chief Justice, Sir William Waller. Waller carried the information to the king, and procured a warrant for the apprehension of Fitzharris, who, at the time, was found with a copy of the libel in his pocket. The account he gave of the matter was that the libel was promoted by the court, who wished to fasten it upon the excluders of the Duke of York. Once set going on the line of lying testimony, he improved the case by deposing to a new popish plot of which the Duke of York was the contriver, who, he added, had been the author of the murder of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey. The king imprisoned Fitzharris. The Commons took his part and wished to impeach him themselves. The Lords rejected the impeachment of the Commons, and to stop the apparently interminable contest, the king dissolved the Parliament, vowing that he would never call another.

He kept his word, and from that time displayed an arbitrariness of disposition which he had not hitherto exhibited. He reduced the magistrates of London to submission by taking away their charter till they returned to obedience. He deprived the Presbyterians of office. Fitzharris, tried by a jury, was condemned and executed. The king's was now the winning side, and the spies and informers sought their victims from the Presbyterians.

Stephen College, a joiner, had used strong language against popery and contemptuous language against the king. He was sentenced to be hanged at Oxford. The king even made money by receiving payments from the corporate towns for the continuance of their charters.

These arbitrary proceedings on the part of the king, fomented rebellions. The Duke of Monmouth enlisted several of the most influential families of the North of England, especially the county of Cheshire, in his favour. The Earl of Shaftesbury had been a restless plotter, especially among the citizens of London, but fearing the caution and delay with which he had to contend, he resolved suddenly to quit the kingdom, and retired to Amsterdam, where he ended his life.

After his departure a council was said to have been formed of six conspirators—Monmouth, Russell, Essex, Howard, Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandson of the Hampden of Charles I.'s reign. These, with the Earl of Argyle in the north, were the leaders of the conspiracy, but they employed many others as subordinates. They concocted what has been called the Rye House Plot.

Rumbold, one of the conspirators, possessed a farm called Rye House, near the road to Newmarket, where Charles at this time had a residence. The scheme was to overturn a cart as if accidentally at this point in the road when the king's carriage should come that way, and avail themselves of the delay by shooting him from behind the hedges. An accidental fire broke out in the king's house at Newmarket, and compelled him to leave that town a week earlier than he had intended. By this circumstance his life was saved.

Among the conspirators was one of the name of Sheppard, a wine merchant in London, in whose house the conspirators had met. Colonel Rumsey and West, a lawyer, who had been already informed against by one Keiling, resolved to save themselves by turning king's evidence without delay. Orders for the arrest of the six conspirators were issued. Monmouth escaped; Russell was sent to the Tower; Grey escaped; Howard was caught in a chimney; Essex, Sidney, and Hampden were arrested, and found that Lord Howard had turned evidence against them. Walcot, a colonel in the army, Hone, and Rouse, were executed. They died confessing the justice of their sentence; the designs of the other conspirators differed widely.

Next came Lord William Russell, a son of the Duke of

Bedford. He was condemned to be executed by beheading in Lincoln's Inn Fields. In vain had his wife thrown herself at the king's feet to beg his life. He suffered with patient bravery. And next to him came Algernon Sidney, a son of the Earl of Leicester, accused also by Howard. Sidney had engaged on the side of the Parliament against the late king. Although the law required two witnesses, yet, as a second could not be found, the fiction was resorted to of adducing his private papers as representing the deficient witness. He pleaded against this proceeding, and maintained that even had it been legal the papers contained nothing treasonable. His arguments were overruled. It is sufficient to say that the terrible Chief Justice Jeffreys, of whom we shall read hereafter, sat on the bench at Sidney's trial, and his execution soon followed.

Hampden was fined 40,000*l.* Holloway, a Bristol merchant, who had escaped to the West Indies, was brought back, condemned, and executed. Sir Thomas Armstrong, who had fled to Holland, was similarly dealt with. Lord Essex died a mysterious death. He was found in the Tower with his throat cut; but whether by suicide or assassination (rumour even ventured to whisper of a royal hand) no evidence is forthcoming to declare.

Such are the more prominent only of the libels, plots, and conspiracies, which spread over the latter years of Charles II.'s reign. The king had reached an almost absolute power when his life was suddenly cut short in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Epilepsy, apoplexy, and, according to Bishop Burnet, poison, were conjectured as the cause of the king's death. It is certain that he died a Roman Catholic, receiving the last communion of that Church at the hands of Father Huddlestone, who was brought secretly to his bedside after he had rejected the ministrations of certain clergymen of the Established Church.

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CHAPTER XXXI.

JAMES II. A.D. 1685—A.D. 1688.

JAMES began his reign with declarations to his council of his intentions to support the existing laws and institutions of Church and State, and, by a course of action opposed to his professions, he issued a proclamation ordering the payment of customs and excise as before, and publicly attended mass as a Roman Catholic. On the 23rd of April, in the year of his accession, he was crowned with his queen, Mary of Modena, in Westminster Abbey.

The Parliament was submissive and liberal, and voted him a revenue of nearly two millions.

The conspirators who escaped from England on the discovery of the Rye House plot had fled into Holland. Monmouth and Argyle were there, accompanied by others of less note. A meeting was held at Amsterdam, in which it was arranged that Argyle should make a descent upon Scotland, and Monmouth invade England at the same time.

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Apparent liberality. Conduct towards the regicides. A fixed revenue voted to the Crown. Trial and execution of the regicides. Nucleus of a standing army. Restoration of the bishops and the Liturgy. Archbishop Sharpe. Savoy conference. Corporation Act. Act of Uniformity. Marriage of the king. Trial of Lambert and Vane. Convention Act. War with the Dutch. Plague of London. Five Mile Act. Another defeat of the Dutch. Fire of London. Dutch in the Medway. Treaty of Breda. Cession of New York. Exile of Lord Clarendon. Cabal ministry. Encroachments of Louis XIV. Triple alliance. Secret treaty of the king with France. Duchess of Portsmouth. War of England and France against the Dutch. William of Orange. Jealousy of the burgomasters. Murder of the brothers De Witt. Test Act. Marriage of the Duke of York. Plot of Titus Oates. Credulity of Parliament. Deposition of Bedloe. The Trimmers. Habeas Corpus Act. Bill for the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession. Origin of "Whig" and "Tory." Disturbances in Scotland. Murder of Archbishop Sharpe. Duke of York commissioner in Scotland. Meal Tub plot. Story of Fitzharris. Rye House plot. First appearance of Judge Jeffreys. Death of the king.

CHAPTER XXXI.

JAMES II. A.D. 1685—A.D. 1688.

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The Parliament was submissive and liberal, and voted him a revenue of nearly two millions.

The conspirators who escaped from England on the discovery of the Rye House plot had fled into Holland. Monmouth and Argyle were there, accompanied by others of less note. A meeting was held at Amsterdam, in which it was arranged that Argyle should make a descent upon Scotland, and Monmouth invade England at the same time.

Bedford. He was condemned to be executed by beheading in Lincoln's Inn Fields. In vain had his wife thrown herself at the king's feet to beg his life. He suffered with patient bravery. And next to him came Algernon Sidney, a son of the Earl of Leicester, accused also by Howard. Sidney had engaged on the side of the Parliament against the late king. Although the law required two witnesses, yet, as a second could not be found, the fiction was resorted to of adducing his private papers as representing the deficient witness. He pleaded against this proceeding, and maintained that even had it been legal the papers contained nothing treasonable. His arguments were overruled. It is sufficient to say that the terrible Chief Justice Jeffreys, of whom we shall read hereafter, sat on the bench at Sidney's trial, and his execution soon followed.

Hampden was fined 40,000*l.* Holloway, a Bristol merchant, who had escaped to the West Indies, was brought back, condemned, and executed. Sir Thomas Armstrong, who had fled to Holland, was similarly dealt with. Lord Essex died a mysterious death. He was found in the Tower with his throat cut; but whether by suicide or assassination (rumour even ventured to whisper of a royal hand) no evidence is forthcoming to declare.

Such are the more prominent only of the libels, plots, and conspiracies, which spread over the latter years of Charles II.'s reign. The king had reached an almost absolute power when his life was suddenly cut short in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Epilepsy, apoplexy, and, according to Bishop Burnet, poison, were conjectured as the cause of the king's death. It is certain that he died a Roman Catholic, receiving the last communion of that Church at the hands of Father Huddlestone, who was brought secretly to his bedside after he had rejected the ministrations of certain clergymen of the Established Church.

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Argyle, known among his own clansmen as M'Callum More, landed on the coast of Cantire and roused his clan. Hardly more than 2000 men rose to the call; with these he marched for Glasgow; but his little army was scattered near Dumbarton, and he himself attempting to escape in disguise was made prisoner. Some days later he was beheaded at the Tolbooth in Edinburgh.

Monmouth landed on the coast of Dorsetshire, with only three ships. The peasantry flocked to his standard. The gentry made no move in his favour. He reached the town of Taunton and there assumed the title of king. The citizens welcomed him, and a band of young girls in procession presented him with an embroidered banner and a copy of the Bible. He was bent on attacking Bristol, then the second city of England, and he had passed Bridgewater and was nearly arrived at Bath. Meanwhile, the train-bands were mustered, and the royal troops approaching, Monmouth's heart failed him, especially on hearing of the fate of Argyle.

Three miles from Bridgewater lies Sedgemoor, the ancient hiding place of Alfred. Here lay an army of 3000 men under Faversham, which Monmouth determined to attack. It was a swampy plain, crossed by dykes, or, as they were called, rhines. He had crossed two of these, but came upon a third of broader dimensions, of the existence of which he had not been informed. His forces came to a stand-still on the hither side of the rhine, and the noise and confusion startled the royal troops on the other side. In terror Monmouth took to flight, his foot-soldiers held their ground gallantly for a while, till they were mown down by the royal artillery, and the army of Monmouth was routed, leaving 1000 slain on the field.

Two days later, Monmouth was found lurking in a ditch near the New Forest. When taken before the king he prostrated himself upon the floor and pleaded hard for his life; but in vain, he was doomed to immediate execution. On the scaffold he warned the executioner not to deal with him in the same awkward way as he had treated Lord Russell. The remonstrance unnerved the headsman, who made a blow so weak that Monmouth raised his head as

if in expostulation ; again and again the executioner tried in vain, till in despair he threw down the axe and declared himself unable to perform his task, till peremptorily commanded by the sheriff to do so.

The task of punishing the rebels was entrusted to two persons of different professions but similar dispositions. One of these was Colonel Percy Kirke, who hanged them by scores up to the sign-post of the White Hart Inn at Taunton, while he and his comrades drank the king's health on the ground over which the rebels were dangling. The other was Chief Justice Jeffreys, whose name became a bye-word of blasphemy and cruelty. He opened at Winchester what afterwards went by the name of the bloody assize. Alice Lisle was tried for affording food and shelter to two of the rebels. She was widow of Lord Lisle, one of Cromwell's adherents. She was sentenced to be burnt alive, but through the intercession of her friends her sentence was commuted to beheading. She was beheaded in the market place at Winchester. More than 300 persons suffered death in this judicial massacre, beside many who were mutilated, exiled, or imprisoned.

James, encouraged by this kind of support, proceeded more hopefully than ever in his darling project of converting England to the Romish faith and worship. He expressed his intention of repealing the Test and maintaining a standing army ; in this he gave commands to Roman Catholic officers. He exercised a "dispensing power" in favour of the Romanists which virtually nullified the laws. He placed the whole Church under a commission court of seven members, of whom Jeffreys, now Lord Chancellor, was president.

A papal nuncio was received at Whitehall, and Father Petre, a Jesuit, became the king's confessor.

Scotland was placed under Drummond, Earl of Perth ; one of whose recommendations to the king's favour was the adoption and liberal application of the steel thumbscrew.

Richard Talbot, a Catholic, was made Earl of Tyrconnel and deputy of Ireland.

The proceedings of the Court excited the alarm of the

Established Church. Dr. Sharpe, a clergyman of London, distinguished himself in preaching against the measures of the king. The Bishop of London was ordered to suspend Dr. Sharpe, and replied that he had no power to proceed in so arbitrary a manner against any clergyman; whereupon both the clergyman and the bishop were suspended by the commissioners.

We have already said, that James promoted the Roman Catholic interests by assuming the prerogative of dispensing with the penalties attached to the laws directed against that religion.

In Ireland, the councillors and judges were Roman Catholics. The charters of Dublin and other corporations were annulled and new charters issued, subjecting the corporation to the king. He even condescended to private conversations with public men, with a view to bringing them over to his own views of religion.

The king also attacked the universities. A royal letter commanded the Senate of Cambridge to admit Alban Francis, a Benedictine monk, to the degree of M.A. As no Romanist could take the oaths, the university refused. The vice-chancellor, with eight others, among whom was Isaac Newton, appeared before the high commission, and the vice-chancellor lost his office.

The king appointed Antony Parker, a Romanist, to the presidency of Magdalen College at Oxford. The fellows chose John Hough. The king went down himself to the college, but the fellows left it rather than submit. A Romish bishop with twelve Romish fellows were thus introduced into the college.

The next measure of the Court was a still more public assault on the liberties of the Established Church. The king had published in April, 1687, a declaration of indulgence, of which the principle was to permit every one to worship according to his conscience. This cut both ways, and gave freedom to Nonconformists, though it was undoubtedly intended for the relief of Roman Catholics. A second of nearly the same tenor was published, and it was ordered to be read in all the churches from the pulpit on two successive Sundays. The Primate Sancroft, and six

other bishops, not only disobeyed the order, but drew up a petition against the declaration. The king was furiously indignant, and the seven recusant bishops were committed to the Tower, where they remained a week before bail was taken for them.

Meanwhile, the news spread that a son was born to the king. Not a few were suspicious that the child was not of royal parentage at all, but had been furtively introduced into the palace under that pretension by the Romanist party. The child was afterwards known as James the Pretender.

The trial of the seven bishops was held before the Court of King's Bench, and constitutes one of the most famous of our State trials. The charge against them was that of malicious and seditious libel. An enthusiastic crowd of high and low, military and citizens, had accompanied the bishops to the Tower, and now again to Westminster Hall. The jury, after long arguments on both sides, and a delay which seemed to the people unaccountable, returned a verdict of not guilty. Bursts of joy were heard in the streets. James happened to be reviewing his army of 16,000 men on Hounslow Heath when the news reached him. Shouts of acclamation fell upon his ears as he sat in the tent of Lord Faversham, the general. He asked what it meant. The general replied that "it was nothing but the rejoicing of the soldiers for the acquittal of the bishops." "Do you call that nothing?" said the king; "but so much the worse for them."

A movement was on foot for rescuing the nation from the oppression and misrule of James by the help of a foreign power. William Prince of Orange Nassau had married the Princess Mary, daughter of James II. Not till the conduct of James had disgusted and alienated his subjects did William send over Dykvelt as envoy to England with the hope of conciliating all ranks and opinions.

When a son was born to the king and the succession was thus cut off from the Prince of Orange, the people were profoundly disappointed, and the prince found himself under the necessity of acting, if at all, in the matter, *with tact and resolution*. Both these qualities he showed

in an eminent degree. So well did he keep his counsel that it was long before even the French king suspected that he had a design upon England ; and James was aghast when he received a letter from the English minister at the Hague, announcing that he might soon look for a powerful invasion of the Dutch upon his dominions.

On the day of the bishops' acquittal a letter had been sent to William, signed by some of the leading nobles and clergy of England, entreating him to come over to their protection. In return the prince had published in England a declaration of his intended invasion and the grounds of it.

James had but one course left him, which, however, he adopted too late—to cancel all the points for which he had been contending for three years.

His fleet consisted of thirty vessels of war, his standing army of 40,000 men ; but the hearts of his people were with the invader.

The Prince of Orange landed at Torbay and advanced to Exeter, where he was well received, in spite of the terror of treason which had been struck into that part of England by the consequences of Monmouth's attempt.

James moved to Salisbury, resolved on staking his kingdom on the issue of a decisive battle. William's policy, on the other hand, was to avoid this ; trusting to the operation of time in his favour, and of the feeling on his behalf which was rapidly spreading throughout England.

The first important case of desertion from the king's interests was that of Lord Churchill, afterwards the great Duke of Marlborough. Others followed ; among them the Duke of Grafton, natural son of the late king.

James retreated towards London, thus betraying his own fears and stimulating further desertion from his cause. Prince George of Denmark, had married the Princess Anne. On her husband deserting with others to the Prince of Orange, she, in company with Lady Churchill and the Bishop of London, retired to Nottingham. When this was told the king his cry was, " God help me ; even my own children have forsaken me."

On reaching London he called a council of peers and pre-

lates, and sent three of their number, Halifax, Nottingham, and Godolphin, as commissioners to treat with the Prince of Orange. William sent two lords, Clarendon and Oxford, to confer with the royal commissioners; declining to do so in person; and pushed on for London, to which he was urged to come with all speed by a convention of peers and prelates who had taken upon themselves the preservation of the city, and had issued orders for the purpose to the mayor and aldermen.

The mob had destroyed the Catholic chapels, and having discovered the Lord Chancellor Jeffreys in disguise, so abused him as to cause his almost immediate death. The commander-in-chief, Lord Faversham, let loose the army, which he disbanded without pay, upon the country.

The king had sent the queen and the infant prince to France, under the protection of an old cavalier of Louis XIV., Count Lauzun. He himself embarked on board a hoy in the Medway, but was seized by some Kentish fishermen in hope of reward. He was dismissed from Whitehall and ordered to go to Ham, a seat of the Duchess of Lauderdale; thence he found his way to Rochester. William purposely conniving at what all felt would be the best thing that could happen—that the king should find his own way to the French court. He escaped first to Ambeteuse in Picardy, and thence to the Palace of St. Germains, where the French king received him kindly and cordially.

It now became necessary to organize the government of the country. The prince was desirous of leaving the people to their own discretion. The peers and bishops, to the number of nearly ninety, urged him to summon a Convention—a name which they employed rather than Parliament, though it should differ in nothing from a parliament except the authority under which it was summoned, and in the meantime to take upon himself the supreme management of the State.

But William desired a fuller expression of the public will on his behalf. The following plan was adopted:—All the members living who had sat in Parliament during the reign of Charles II. were invited to assemble. To

these were added the lord mayor, aldermen, and fifty of the common council. This was considered to be the nearest approach possible, under existing circumstances, to a free representative body. They reissued the former address of the Lords. The like unanimity and good-will was expressed on the part of Scotland.

When the English Convention assembled in January, 1689, thanks were unanimously voted to the Prince of Orange for his deliverance of the country by both Houses; and it was resolved that James had "abdicated the Government, and that the throne was thereby vacant." They then settled the succession to the Crown on the Prince and Princess of Orange, while the prince was to be the sole administrator of the Government. After their death the Princess of Denmark was to succeed, her posterity claiming after those of Mary, and before the children of William by any other marriage. Two documents defining more clearly than before the respective rights of the sovereign and the people were put forth, the first called "the Declaration of Rights," and the second, promulgated later, called "the Bill of Rights." In the following month the crown was tendered to William and Mary, and they were proclaimed King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland.

MAIN POINTS.

Conduct and religion of James. Rebellion of Argyle and Monmouth. End of Monmouth. Colonel Kirke and Judge Jeffreys. King's open support of the Roman Catholic religion. Declaration of Indulgence. Resistance to its publication. Trial and commitment of the seven bishops. Negotiations with England of William of Orange. Projected invasion of William. Retractation of James. William lands in England. Desertion of the king. He treats by commissioners with William. Increase of popular feeling in favour of William. Convention of the kingdom. Settlement of the succession. The "Declaration of Rights" and "Bill of Rights." Proclamation of William and Mary as king and queen.

CHAPTER XXXII.
HOUSE OF ORANGE.

WILLIAM AND MARY. A.D. 1689—A.D. 1702.

WILLIAM HENRY, Prince of Orange, was in his thirty-eighth year when he was called by the people to the throne.

In the choice of ministers he seemed altogether to ignore party politics. Nottingham who had opposed, and Shrewsbury who had promoted his accession, were both made Secretaries of State. Danby and Halifax, as President and Privy Seal, found themselves, in spite of their rivalry, seated at the same council board. The Great Seal and the Treasury were both put into commission, the chief commissioner being Lord Mordaunt, afterwards famous as the Earl of Peterborough.

The king promoted his Dutch friends. Bentinck was made a privy councillor and created Earl of Portland; Zuleistein, master of the robes and Earl of Rochford; Schomberg, at the head of the ordnance, was created Duke of Schomberg; and Auverquerque master of the horse and Earl of Grantham. The full authority of the Crown was claimed by himself, and Mary was well contented with the position of queen-consort.

The Convention voted itself a Parliament, and the bill received the royal assent. The Whigs, however, reduced the former allowance of 2,000,000*l.* to James to 1,200,000*l.*, and established the precedent of apportioning the supplies, appropriating half to the public expenses, and half to the civil list; and when William recommended the reimbursement of 700,000*l.* to the Dutch, who had defrayed the cost of his expedition, they reduced the grant by 100,000*l.* The mind of the king was much estranged from the Whigs by this resolute economy.

The king soon lost his popularity; and in proportion a feeling in favour of the exiled James revived. In the army the feeling was thwarted by ordering disaffected troops to service in Holland. A Scotch army so ordered *mutinied and marched northwards, but were overtaken by*

De Ginkell and sent to their destination. This occasioned the Mutiny Bill for the army, which has since been renewed from year to year.

Among the peers many refused to take the oath of allegiance to the new king. Among them was the primate Sancroft and seven other bishops. Their example was followed by about four hundred of the inferior clergy.

This confirmed the king in his predilection for the Dissenters, to whom he was naturally inclined as a Dutch Calvinist. A bill for their relief was passed, called the Toleration Act. On condition of taking the oaths of allegiance and supremacy and making a declaration against transubstantiation, Dissenters were relieved from the penalties of non-attendance at church or worshipping in conventicles. They were not to meet with locked doors, but disturbers at their assemblies were liable to penalty. Deniers of the Trinity and Papists were not included in the protection of the Toleration Act.

The king and queen were solemnly crowned at Westminster Abbey. Archbishop Sancroft having declined to perform the act of consecration, the ceremony devolved on Compton, the Bishop of London.

In Scotland an irregular assembly held in Edinburgh of nobility and gentry declared that the throne had become vacant, inasmuch as James had "forefaulted" his right; but a strong party remained in his favour.

Among them were the Duke of Gordon, the Archbishop of Glasgow, the Earl of Balcarres, and Viscount Dundee, formerly Graham of Claverhouse, who, with two or three thousand Highlanders, defeated the king's troops of double the number at Killiecrankie. But Dundee himself fell mortally wounded, and the Duke of Gordon having surrendered Edinburgh Castle, the whole country was reduced to submission.

Episcopacy was abolished and Presbyterianism was established as the State religion in Scotland.

In Ireland more stirring events took place. Tyrconnel had a difficult part to play as Lord-Deputy of Ireland, and he was meditating how, with the best grace, he could *surrender the country to the new king, when he received*

a letter from James to say that he was on the eve of setting sail from Brest with a strong force. He soon afterwards arrived at Kinsale and was received with welcome acclamations by the people. His force consisted of fourteen ships of the line, six frigates, and three fireships, which had been lent him by Louis XIV., but his army was only 1200 of his own subjects, in the pay of France, and 100 French officers. Tyrconnel met James at Cork, who there made him a duke. A rabble of 100,000 men constituted Tyrconnel's army, the great mass of which James disbanded, and proceeded to invest Londonderry, which, with Enniskillen, were the only towns in Ireland which declared for Protestantism and King William.

The siege of Londonderry is one of the most signal in our history. The governor, Lundy, had purposed to betray it to the besiegers, but his plot was discovered, and he barely escaped from the town with his life. The command of the garrison then devolved on the Reverend George Walker, whose monument still stands upon the walls. The siege lasted one hundred and five days, during which the besieged suffered the most pitiable and revolting distresses of famine, and were reduced from 7000 to 3000 in garrison. Relief came in two merchantmen, which, protected by a frigate, broke the boom which had been thrown across the river Foyle, and provisions were introduced into the town. De Rosen, who commanded the besieging army, which was well-nigh swamped by heavy rains, withdrew from the siege.

Enniskillen behaved with equal bravery. Lord Mountcashel was routed, wounded, and taken prisoner. Schomberg landed on the coast of Down with 10,000 men, and encamped near Dundalk, from which the Duke of Berwick, the natural son of James, retired on his approach.

While these things were passing in Ireland, in the year 1689, the Parliament passed the Bill of Rights, reversed the attainders of Lord Russell, Algernon Sidney, Alderman Cornish, and Mrs. Lisle, made reparation for the extortions of Jeffreys by charging the amount with interest upon his estates, and even reversed the judgment upon *Oates* and granted him a pension of 300*l.* a year.

The Parliament, before its dissolution, had granted the king a supply of 1,200,000*l.* on his expressing his intention to pass into Ireland, and 100,000*l.* was presented to his general, Marshal Schomberg.

The army of the king and marshal amounted to 36,000 men—English, Dutch and other foreigners. The armies met a few miles above Drogheda, on the banks of the river Boyne.

The army of James numbered 30,000 men, among whom were 10,000 French, commanded by Lauzun. Although James's army was inferior in force, he trusted to the advantages of his position for hazarding an engagement. In front he had the river, his left was covered by a morass, while the village of Dromore was at his rear. William's army was divided into three corps, and he gave orders to begin the attack by crossing the river. The Duke of Schomberg forded the stream with the centre division, his son Count Schomberg led the right, and the left division crossed under the command of the king himself. At all points the attack was successful. The Irish army, with the exception of the cavalry, who made some slight resistance, gave way at once. The king's army lost 500 men, and among these was the Duke of Schomberg. The army of James lost 1500, and feeling it to be disbanded James made the best of his way to Dublin. Walker, the defender of Londonderry, also fell in this action, which has passed into history as the Battle of the Boyne.

From Dublin James reached Kinsale, and there embarking on board a French frigate arrived safe at Brest. Notwithstanding this victory many towns in Ireland still held out for James. William besieged and reduced Wexford, Clonmel, Waterford, and Duncannon. His siege of Limerick was not so successful. He was repulsed by a sortie of the garrison, and the rain setting in, was compelled to raise the siege and next month left Ireland. The Earl of Marlborough soon landed near Cork with 5000 men and reduced both Limerick and Kinsale, returning to England within five weeks of his landing in Ireland.

During William's stay in Ireland a naval engagement took place off Beachy Head between the English and Dutch

fleets, under Admiral Herbert, who had been created Earl of Torrington, and the French Admiral Tourville. This might have been most disastrous had the French prosecuted their success, instead of contenting themselves with burning the town of Teignmouth. Torrington lost the day, and incurred the especial displeasure of the king by placing the Dutch ships in the van of the battle. He was tried by a court-martial and honourably acquitted.

In the following year, the campaign in Ireland was brought to a close.

Wild Irish pike-men called Rapparees, infested the country and harassed the English army. The war was terminated by De Ginkell, one of William's Dutch generals, afterwards made Earl of Athlone. In the face of an Irish army commanded by the Frenchman St. Ruth, he bombarded Athlone, wading the Shannon to enter the breach. St. Ruth had taken up his position at Aughrim, where he was attacked by De Ginkell. The French general was killed by a cannon ball, when his army, panic-struck, fled to Limerick. After a six weeks' siege the city surrendered on a treaty, much against the inclination of the French.

The chief articles of the treaty of Limerick were, that the Irish should be permitted to enjoy the exercise of their religion as in the time of Charles II., that those included in the capitulation should continue to possess their estates unmolested, and that a passage at the expense of the government should be granted to all who might desire to retire to the continent. Sarsfield and about 12,000 men accordingly left the country, and entered the service of Louis XIV. Thus ended the struggle of the Stuarts in Ireland.

In this year the primate Sancroft and five of the bishops, who still refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and went from that circumstance by the name of Non-jurors, were deprived of their sees. Tillotson, Dean of St. Paul's, succeeded Sancroft in the primacy.

William had passed the greater part of the year in Holland conducting the campaign against Louis XIV.; but beyond the taking of Mons by the French, nothing of importance was done. The policy of the king seems at this

time to have become less liberal. Both Houses of Parliament had passed a bill for making the judges independent of the Crown. It was rejected by the king.

And here we must give some account of an act of barbarity which has left an indelible stain upon William's memory. This was the infamous massacre of Glencoe. In the same year as the treaty of Limerick a pacification had been proclaimed in the month of August to the Scotch Highlanders, on condition of their taking the oaths of allegiance to William and Mary before the last day of the year. The Jacobite heads of clans had all complied, except Mac Ian, the chief of the Macdonalds of Glencoe. He had imprudently deferred the matter till the 31st December, and then repaired to Fort Augustus, where he found no one ready to administer the oath. He then proceeded by the advice of the commandant of the fort to Inverary, but it was a labour of six days to reach the place. Sir Colin Campbell, the sheriff of Argyle, after many difficulties, consented to receive his oath, but Sir John Dalrymple, the Master of Stair, being a deadly enemy of the Macdonalds, turned Mac Ian's remissness into the occasion of his destruction. Without informing the king of his submission, he procured a royal warrant for the destruction of the tribe. About sixty persons were massacred, and as many more driven from their homes, and this was done by troops commanded by Campbell of Glenlyon, who was the uncle of Macdonald's wife, and whose party had been therefore received without hesitation, and had enjoyed Mac Ian's hospitality for nearly a fortnight.

This year, William, leaving the administration of English affairs in the hands of the queen, embarked again for Holland. Intrigues were going on in favour of the restoration of the Stuarts, in which even the Whigs, and with them Marlborough, were active. The French king promised his assistance, and a camp was formed under Marshal Bellefonds, at La Hogue. Admiral Tourville was to bring a fleet from Brest.

The Dutch and English fleet made for La Hogue, and under Admiral Russell bore down upon the French. The battle was fought in a haze, but towards evening the

French ships were descried making away under all sail. Many of the larger vessels were destroyed by falling in with a flotilla commanded by Admiral Rooke, within sight of James and the French. It was to accommodate the wounded sailors after the battle of La Hogue, that Queen Mary ordered the royal palace of Greenwich to be converted into a hospital.

William's campaign in Flanders was unsuccessful. While attempting to raise the siege of Namur he was defeated with great loss at Steinkirk, and in the following year (1693) a large fleet of merchantmen from Smyrna, convoyed by Admiral Rooke, was attacked by a far superior force under Tourville. It was captured, to the number of eighty ships, with two Dutch men-of-war—the great majority, however (for the whole number had amounted to 400) found their way into the ports of Spain.

These ill successes tended to aggravate William's unpopularity, and several towns in England, as Bristol, Exeter, and Boston, signified their adherence to his rival's interest.

When the Parliament met in 1694, they passed a bill making all parliaments triennial. The king did not like the measure, but as grants were contingent upon his assent, this was reluctantly given. In the course of this year the queen died. Nearly at the same time the primate Tillotson died, and was succeeded in the primacy by Tenison.

After the prorogation of the Parliament, William passed over to Holland, and his success in taking Namur in the presence of an overwhelming superiority of the French forces under Villeroi and Boufflers, did much to re-establish his popularity, which was mostly due, so far as it went, to his military character and capacity. When, therefore, a plot had been formed and discovered against the king's person, to seize and carry him to France, and the king laid the matter before the Parliament, they framed a loyal association after the fashion of that formed in Elizabeth's reign, to protect the royal person; and the signing of the deed of association was made requisite for all who held public offices.

Six of the conspirators—Charnock, King, Keys, Sir John Friend, Sir William Perkins, and Sir John Fenwick,

were condemned and executed. The nonjuring divine Jeremy Collier, appeared on the scaffold and publicly absolved the two latter.

On the 9th of May, 1696, a settlement of peace was opened at Ryswick, a village near Delft. The negotiations were protracted by the Emperor of Germany and the King of Spain, who desired to continue the war, but this was finally signed in the September of the following year.

The Parliament reduced the army to 10,000 men. As he foresaw that the treaty of Ryswick would not put an end to the continental war, the king was especially annoyed at this reduction, and before he left the country sent sealed letters to the ministers requiring its augmentation to 16,000, with which they unconstitutionally complied.

During his residence in Holland, in 1698, William negotiated a treaty respecting the Spanish succession. Philip IV. of Spain, had left three children: Charles II., now deemed to be at the point of death; Maria Theresa, married to Louis XIV. of France; and Margaret Theresa, married to the Emperor Leopold I. The Queen of France had renounced her claim to the Spanish succession. Not so her younger sister; but the child of this younger sister, married to Maximilian Emanuel, Elector of Bavaria, had been compelled to make the renunciation before her marriage. On both sides it was contended that this kind of renunciation did not bind posterity. Accordingly, Louis claimed the Crown of Spain for his son, the Dauphin, and the Elector of Bavaria for his son, the Electoral Prince. A third claimant was the Emperor Leopold himself, who claimed, on behalf of his son Charles, that he was a lineal descendant of Philip III.; a claim which, however true, might have been met by a precisely similar one on the part of Louis XIV.

The first treaty, signed at Loo, provided for a partition of the Spanish dominions. The Dauphin was to have Naples, Sicily, the Tuscan ports, and the Italian marquisate of Final, together with all the territory on the French side of the Pyrenees. The Electoral Prince was to have Spain, the Netherlands, and the Indies, while

Milan was to be given to the second son of the emperor, the Archduke Charles. Charles II. rallied, and furiously indignant at the proceeding altogether, willed the whole of his dominions to the Electoral Prince, who, however, died at Brussels the next year.

The debates of the Commons were now more than ever hostile to the king. They reduced the army to 7000, and deprived William of his Dutch guards, to his violent annoyance, so that he even threatened to leave the kingdom. They were incensed at the large grants, with peerages, which the king had made to his foreign dependents in Ireland, and at his gift to his mistress, Elizabeth Villiers, now Countess of Orkney, of all James's confiscated estates. The Commons resolved that these forfeitures should be recovered for the public use, and in order to compel the king's acquiescence, incorporated the bill with one of supply.

The King of Spain being in a rapid decline, another treaty of partition was signed in 1700, at London and at the Hague; but Leopold, toward the close of the year, formally declined any partition whatever. By this treaty the Archduke Charles was to have the share formerly allotted to the Electoral Prince, and Milan was to be added to the portion of the Dauphin. To prevent the union of the Crown of Spain and the Empire of Austria, the King of the Romans, the eldest son of the emperor, and the Dauphin of France, were both excluded from the succession in the event of the archduke's death. Soon afterwards Charles II. died, having made a will in favour of Philip, Duke of Anjou, the second son of the Dauphin, and in case of Philip's refusal the Crown of Spain was to be offered to the Archduke Charles. The demise in favour of Philip was satisfactory to Louis, and William also thought it prudent to acquiesce in the arrangement. In this reign a Cabinet Council was for the first time formally established.

As to the succession to the throne of England, the death of the Duke of Gloucester at the age of eleven left it unprovided for after the death of William and Anne, and the king recommended the matter to the consideration of

the Parliament. They passed the Act of Settlement, by which the succession devolved on Sophia, the wife of the Elector of Hanover, the nearest of kin to the family of James, being a Protestant. The next in blood, after the children of James II., was the Duchess of Savoy, daughter of Henrietta, Duchess of Orleans.*

Although William had acknowledged the new king of Spain, he was by no means pleased with the arrangement; while the whole affair of the treaties had been so obnoxious to the Parliament that they had even threatened to impeach some of the king's ministers.

The emperor had already begun the "War of the Succession," by attacking the French in Italy. William was only anxious about the safety of Holland and the restraining of the encroachments of the Austrian empire. He stipulated for the recovery of Flanders on the former account, and Milan on the latter; as also that England and Holland should retain any possessions they might acquire in both the Indies. On these conditions the king signed a treaty between the emperor, England, and the States of Holland, which went by the name of the Grand Alliance.

James II. died at St. Germains, having abandoned himself to the most austere observance of his religion; but on his death-bed Louis had consoled the father by promising ever to recognise the son as King of England. William, regarding this as a violation of the Treaty of Ryswick, recalled his ambassador from France, and dismissed the French ambassador from London. Both sides prepared for war. In this William was warmly supported by the Parliament, who voted a large army and fleet to retaliate upon Louis his recognition of the Pretender.

But while these vast preparations were in progress, the king met with an accident which his weak state of health rendered fatal. While riding from Kensington to Hampton Court his horse fell with him, and his collarbone was broken. He seemed to have recovered from the effects of the fall; but in the following month he suffered a relapse, and on the 8th of March, 1702, having received the Sacrament of the Communion from the hands of the Archbishop of Canterbury, he expired.

MAIN POINTS.

William's liberal policy. Promotion of his Dutch friends. Change from Convention to Parliament. Resolute economy of the Whigs. Unpopularity of William. Signs of disaffection. Coronation of king and queen. Resistance of Scotland. Reinstatement of Presbyterianism. James is encouraged to land in Ireland. Siege of Londonerry. King passes into Ireland with Marshal Schomberg. Battle of the Boyne. Siege of Limerick. Retirement of William from Ireland. Naval engagement with the French. Bombardment of Athlone. Close of the Stuart struggle in Ireland. Deprivation of five non-juring bishops. Massacre of Glencoe. Naval action with the French. Origin of Greenwich Hospital. Defeat of Steinkirk. Capture of an English squadron under Admiral Rooke. Disaffection against the king. Triennial Parliaments. Death of the queen. William's success at Namur. Deed of Association. Execution of conspirators. Conference at Ryswick. Spanish succession. Further reduction of the army. Second treaty of the Spanish succession. Act of Settlement. War of the Succession. The Grand Alliance. Death of James II. and of William.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

ANNE. A.D. 1702—A.D. 1714.

ANNE was the second daughter of James II., by his first wife, Anne Hyde. She was born in St. James's Palace, crowned at Westminster, and reigned from 1702 to 1714. By the Act of Succession, she succeeded to the throne, to the exclusion both of her brother, Prince James Francis Edward, the eldest son of James II. being a Roman Catholic, and also of the Duchess of Savoy.

She married George, Prince of Denmark, the second son of King Frederick III., who was not permitted to assume the title of king, but was styled His Highness Prince George. The prince was born in 1653, and died at Kensington of asthma in 1708, being buried at Westminster. She had a family of seventeen children, all of whom died in infancy with the exception of one son, William, who lived to be eleven years old.

Anne had hardly come to the throne before she declared war against France. This was undertaken partly to

restore the balance of power in Europe, by taking from Louis XIV. those Spanish dominions which he had seized for his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, and partly because Louis supported the claims of the son of James II. to the English throne.

The French king was not a little irritated at receiving similar declarations from the Dutch and the Germans on the same day.

The Duke of Marlborough was appointed commander-in-chief of the allied army. He was in every way fitted for his position, calm and far-sighted in the cabinet, as brave in the field. These wars, illustrious as they were, are connected with, rather than part of, the history of England. The principal engagements were at Vigo, in Galicia, in Spain, in 1702; Blenheim, 1704; at Gibraltar in the same year; at Ramilies in the Netherlands, in 1706, which compelled Louis to sue for peace; at Almanza in Spain, in the following year; at Oudenarde in the Netherlands, in 1708; at Malplaquet, in 1709; at Saragossa in Spain, 1710; and at Denain in France, in 1712.

Peace was at last established by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, in which France agreed to recognise the Protestant succession in England. From eleven millions at the end of the preceding reign, the national debt was raised by these wars to upwards of twenty-one millions.

The conquest of Gibraltar was an event which has ever since vitally affected the condition of Great Britain as a naval power. Hearing that the French were fitting out a squadron at Brest, the ministers sent Sir Cloutesley Shovel and Sir George Rooke to watch them. Sir George had orders also to convey a body of troops, under the Prince of Hesse, to Barcelona, on which an unsuccessful attack was made. The two admirals called a council of war on board the fleet as they lay off the African coast, and they concluded to make an attack on Gibraltar, standing upon a tongue of land backed by a rock inaccessible on all sides but one. It was not then the almost impregnable garrison which British skill has since made it, *nor were the Spaniards provided against this unexpected*

assault. The Prince of Hesse, with 800 men, made an unsuccessful assault upon the town, which was then cannonaded from the ships. As the Spaniards retired from the fortifications the boats were ordered to be armed and manned; those nearest the shore anticipating the order of a general attack of the boats ran them on shore, and, entering the fortifications sword in hand, two officers and about 100 men were killed by the blowing up of a mine. But three of the captains landing with reinforcements carried by storm a redoubt which lay between the mole and the town; the governor capitulated, and the Prince of Hesse entered the town. Yet, so little was thought of this acquisition at the time, that Sir George Rooke received neither thanks nor promotion.

In Spain, the English met with a serious mishap. We have said that Louis XIV. had placed his grandson, Philip IV., on the throne of that kingdom. But Charles, son of the Emperor of Germany, had been nominated under a treaty of the European powers, the French included, though it was now disregarded by them in favour of a scion of the House of Bourbon. Charles was strong also in the invitations of the Catalonians, and the combined alliance of the English and Portuguese. He was furnished with an army of only 9000 men, with the Earl of Peterborough at their head, a man of romantic courage and honour, of high mind though deformed in person. He had fought at the age of fifteen against the Moors in Africa; five years afterwards he took part in the Revolution, and now carrying on the war as a friend of the Archduke Charles, almost at his own expense, seized after minor successes the town of Barcelona, with a garrison of 5000 men.

But the earl was recalled, and the command transferred to Lord Galway, who gave the enemy battle near the town of Almanza. Here the English troops were outflanked by the desertion of the Portuguese cavalry, and to the number of 10,000, were compelled to surrender as prisoners of war.

Hitherto a Whig ministry had been in the ascendant; for though the Duke of Marlborough had started in the

Tory interest, he found the Whigs the stronger in their feeling against the military power of France. They were, however, on the eve of falling from power; but before their dismissal a measure of the greatest moment was consummated.

This was nothing less than the union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland, which had continued distinct after the union of the kingdoms under James I. Both Parliaments agreed to the institution of a commission of which the members should be nominated by the queen. They met at Whitehall, the queen herself attending their meetings and urging them to expedition. The articles of this famous treaty were as follows:—That the succession to the United Kingdom should be vested in the Protestant House of Hanover; that all subjects of Great Britain should be upon a political equality; that private rights should remain untouched; that the Scotch Courts of Judicature should be continued; that Scotland should be represented in the Parliament of Great Britain by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners, their mode of election being determined by the existent Scotch Parliament; that all peers of Scotland should be considered peers of Great Britain, and rank immediately after peers of the same grade at the time of the union, and before such of the same grade as should be created afterwards; that they should enjoy all the privileges of English peers except that of sitting or voting in Parliament, or at the trial of peers; and that the two Parliaments should abrogate all existent laws incompatible with these provisions. Such were the principal articles presented to the consideration of the Parliaments by the commissioners. Objections were taken to all these articles, yet all were afterwards allowed.

The Whigs were declining fast, and the Tory interest was effectively secured by Mrs. Masham, a relative of the Duchess of Marlborough, whom she had introduced to the queen, and who having her fortune to make was *assiduous* in those acts of attention which the duchess had ventured to discard. Mrs. Masham was an agent of Mr. Harley, the Tory Minister of State, whose policy was the

expulsion of the Whigs from power. He was supported by Sir Simon Harcourt, an able lawyer, and by the famous Henry St. John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke, a man of little principle, proud, energetic, ambitious, eloquent. With the people, too, the Whigs were going out of favour, for they began to be tired of war-taxes now that the triumph and holiday of war was past.

The first indication of the growing favour of the Tories was evidenced in the singular affair of Dr. Sacheverel. Henry Sacheverel was a clergyman of some popularity among those who in his day were political High Churchmen. At an assize-sermon at Derby, and afterwards at St. Paul's church, he raised the cry of the Church in danger, and preached the Tory doctrine of the Church to the extreme of non-toleration toward the Dissenters. The Lord Mayor, Sir Samuel Garrard, countenanced his harangues, which were published; and although none have appeared to advocate them as masterpieces of eloquence, they derived weight from the character of the times in which they were delivered. Mr. Dolben, son of the Archbishop of York, complained against them in the House of Commons. Passages or extracts from them were read as seditious, and the preacher was brought to the bar of the House. It was resolved to impeach him for high crimes and misdemeanours. Articles of impeachment were drawn up by a committee, and Sacheverel was to be tried before the House of Lords.

The queen herself took the strongest personal interest in the trial. The promoters on the side of the Commons were Sir Joseph Jekyl, Mr. Eyre, the Solicitor General, Sir Peter King, General Stanhope, Mr. Parker, and Mr. Walpole, afterwards Sir Robert Walpole, and subsequently Lord Orford. Dr. Sacheverel was defended by Sir Simon Harcourt, afterwards Lord Chancellor, and Mr. Philips, Dr. Atterbury, Dr. Smallridge, and Dr. Friend.

The populace were in favour of Dr. Sacheverel. The meeting-houses were attacked and destroyed. Several were apprehended and tried for high treason; two were convicted and sentenced to die, but neither suffered.

After the accusation Dr. Sacheverel made his own defence, which is said to have had more the air of originality than his sermons. He maintained the doctrine of non-resistance, and spoke most respectfully of the Revolution and the Protestant succession. He was, however, found guilty by a majority of seventeen. Thirty-four peers entered their protest against the decision. He was suspended for three years. His sermons were to be burnt by the common hangman before the Lord Mayor and Sheriffs—a triumph both of himself and the party of the Tories to which he belonged.

And now the queen summoned a new Parliament—at a moment when the Duke of Marlborough was at the zenith of his reputation from the Flemish campaign. We have said that the wars of the Low Countries were brought to a conclusion by the treaty of Utrecht. A few words upon the subject of this treaty. Marlborough himself had every inducement to desire the continuance of the war, which gave him not only reputation but money, of which he was considered to be overfond. The French king was most desirous of peace, and wished the appointment of a conference, which he went so far as privately to solicit of the duke. A conference accordingly commenced at Gertruydenburg under Marlborough, Eugene, and Zinzendorf, all of whom were naturally disinclined to pacific measures. Their treatment of the French ministers was so uncourteous as to induce Louis to renew hostilities.

Meanwhile the queen had for some time desired a change of ministry. In this feeling she was encouraged by Mr. Harley, and with that support undertook the work of alteration in the cabinet till there was soon not a Whig left in the Government except the Duke of Marlborough. Nor were the Parliament backward to approve her plans, so that the duke soon fell into disesteem; he was accused of avarice, corruption, and a desire to prolong the war for the sake of his personal enrichment, which the nation felt to be a sore burden upon its resources. The charge of receiving a bribe of 6000*l.* a year from a Jew who contracted to supply the army with bread, was the *final imputation*, which might, considering the usual prac-

tice of the day, have been true enough, but which was the pretext rather than the real cause of his disgrace. Gradually he was deprived of nearly all his property, saving the family estate of Blenheim, which had been presented to him by the country in acknowledgment of his great services. The Commons voted him no thanks for his services in Flanders, but reserved that compliment for the Earl of Peterborough and his romantic operations in Spain. The new Tory ministry were determined upon peace; but the duke must be removed from their councils, hence the treatment which he received. To carry out these pacific negotiations Mr. Prior, better known as a poet than a diplomatist, was sent to France, and soon returned with M. Menager, whom the French Government had accredited with authority to treat upon the preliminaries of a negotiation.

But the difficulty which beset the Government was to satisfy the Dutch, who were disinclined to peace, and strong supporters of the Duke of Marlborough. Lord Strafford was sent to the Hague, and found them difficult of persuasion. However, learning from the envoy that the Queen of England was fully determined upon the policy which she was pursuing, they agreed to a conference at Utrecht. The delegates were, on the side of England—Dr. Robinson, Bishop of Bristol, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Earl of Strafford; on the side of the Dutch—Buys and Vanderdussen; and on the part of the French—Marshal d'Uxelles, Cardinal Polignac, and M. Menager. The other deputies did nothing to forward, but much to retard the progress of the conference, and were with reluctance present at its deliberations. Accordingly, the English ministers determined upon a distinct negotiation with France, and Mr. Secretary St. John, who had been created Viscount Bolingbroke, was despatched to the Court of Versailles. He was accompanied by Mr. Prior.

The treaty between England and France was agreed on by the plenipotentiaries on either side, and ratified by the queen.

It then remained for her majesty to acquaint her Parliament with the proceedings in council.

The articles of this famous treaty were—That Philip, the grandson of Louis, now acknowledged King of Spain, should renounce all right to the Crown of France, and that the Duke de Berri, the king's brother, being the next in succession, should make a similar renunciation—that the Duke of Savoy was to be recognised as King of Sicily—that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be destroyed—that Spain should give up all right to Gibraltar and Minorca—and France to Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland, saving certain rights of fishery and the retention of Cape Breton—that the French Protestants condemned to the prisons and galleys, should be released—that the Emperor of Germany should possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Netherlands,—and the King of Prussia Upper Guelderland, time being given to the emperor to sanction the arrangements made on his behalf.

Meanwhile a dissension occurred in the Tory cabinet between Lord Oxford and Lord Bolingbroke. The former was entirely for the Hanoverian succession, the latter was considered to have some leaning for the Pretender.

The queen took greatly to heart this division in the cabinet, and soon gave symptoms of serious sickness. The queen's illness was a signal to the ministry to do their utmost to secure the Protestant Hanoverian succession. They gave warning to the Elector of Hanover, and bade him be in readiness to embark for England from Holland, whence a British squadron would be his convoy. Lord Berkeley, a Whig, was put in command of the fleet.

The queen was shortly afterwards seized with a fit of apoplexy, and died in the forty-ninth year of her age, after a reign of nearly twelve years.

One word about the line of the Stuart family, which had been excluded from the throne. Prince James Francis Edward married a daughter of Sobieski, King of Poland. By her he had two sons. The elder was called, in distinction to his father, the young Pretender. The younger, *Henry*, took orders in the Church of Rome, and became a cardinal. He died in 1807, bequeathing the corona-

tion ring of his grandfather James II. to George III., who was at that time on the throne.

The queen was buried at Westminster. It is not a little remarkable, that towards the close of her reign she had a strong desire that her brother the Pretender should be her successor. But the proposal which she made to him was perilous to herself, and wholly unavailing so far as he was concerned. It was that he should profess himself a Protestant. In the most liberal manner he conceded to others that spiritual freedom which he claimed for himself, but altogether declined "to dissemble in matters of religion."

MAIN POINTS.

Anne's parentage. Her marriage and family. War with France. Appointment of Marlborough. His battles. Treaty of Utrecht. Capture of Gibraltar. Spanish war under Lord Peterborough and Lord Galway. Failure of the English. Union of the English and Scotch Parliaments. Decline of the power of the Whigs. The Tories and Dr. Sacheverel. Renewal of hostilities with France. Disgrace of Marlborough. Difficulties in the way of negotiation with France. Conference of Utrecht. Treaty with France. Division in the cabinet. Illness of the queen. Notification is sent to the Elector. Death of the queen. Family of James. Secret wish of Anne.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

GEORGE I. A.D. 1714—A.D. 1727.

THE Protestant succession had now been established by several Acts of Parliament, recognised on the Continent of Europe, and entirely acquiesced in by the people of England. Under these circumstances, George, the eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, by Sophia, granddaughter of James I., ascended the throne at the mature age of fifty-four.

George was born at Hanover in 1660, crowned at Westminster in 1714, and reigned thirteen years.

He was married to his cousin Sophia Dorothea, daughter

of George William, Duke of Brunswick. Suspicious of the conduct of his wife, he shut her up at Ahlden, in Hanover, for forty years, not allowing even her children to visit her.

These were two. George, who succeeded his father as George II., and Sophia, who, marrying the King of Prussia, became the mother of Frederick the Great.

The king was a man of plain manners and frugal habits, firm, punctual in business, a lover of justice, and a stanch friend and patron, with an expressionless countenance, possessing courage as an attribute of his House. He was wholly ignorant of the English language; his attendance at his own council was thus dispensed with, and the absence of the sovereign from its sittings has since been a rule of state.

The council met immediately on the queen's death. They issued an order for proclaiming the Elector king of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Seven great officers of the kingdom, to whom the Elector by letters patent had already added three of his own adherents, constituted a regency. These sent to intimate to the Elector his accession to the British throne, and the Earl of Dorset escorted him to England. They reinforced the garrison of Portsmouth, and appointed Mr. Addison Secretary of State.

The king landed at Greenwich, and was received by the Duke of Northumberland and the Lords Regent.

The Parliament opened in the first year of the reign, the Whigs being in the ascendant, with the king at their head. Violent measures were taken against the late ministry. The Lords desired the reparation of England's honour on the Continent. The Commons, the punishment of those whom they called Papists, Jacobites, and abettors of the Pretender. A committee of twenty was formed to inspect and report upon all documents relative to the late negotiation of peace, and Mr. Walpole, the chairman, moved the apprehension of Mr. Prior and Mr. Harley, who were accordingly taken into custody.

He astonished the Commons and the committee by impeaching Lord Bolingbroke for high treason, but before

they could recover from their astonishment, Lord Coningsby had further impeached the Earl of Oxford on the same charge.

Upon the case of Lord Oxford a warm debate arose in the Commons. He was charged with having aided the French king in gaining Tournay from the Dutch. Walpole said this was treason. Sir Joseph Jekyl, himself a Whig, argued against it. The case was decided against the accused, and Lord Oxford was committed to the Tower.

The Duke of Ormond and Lord Bolingbroke had fled the country. The earl marshal was ordered to strike their names out of the Peerage, and their estates were confiscated to the Crown.

Lord Oxford remained two years in the Tower. At the expiration of that period he was brought for trial before his peers in Westminster Hall, but a dispute arising between the two Houses as to the mode of conducting the trial, the Lords voted the earl's acquittal.

The elder Pretender, son of James II., now again put forward his claim to the throne, and a reward of a hundred thousand pounds was held out by the Government to any who should apprehend him in the event of his landing in England.

A rebellion broke out in his favour in Scotland, which was headed by the Earl of Mar, who soon found himself at the head of 10,000 men. He was confronted by the Duke of Argyle, and stopped rather than defeated by an engagement at Dunblane, though the duke's forces more than doubled his own. But Lord Mar's cause fell for want of support. Lord Lovat delivered to the king's possession the castle of Inverness, having hitherto professed himself an adherent of the Pretender. The Marquis of Tullibardine also withdrew his support, and Lord Mar's party grew weaker daily.

The insurgents were defeated in a battle at Sheriff Muir, in Perthshire, in 1715, and on the same day another rebel force, under the Earl of Derwentwater, was defeated at Preston, in Lancashire.

The Pretender, joined by Lords Ormond and Boling-

broke, landed at Peterhead, in Aberdeenshire, and reached the camp at Perth ; but being hard pressed by the king's forces he retired to France, escaping by the bay of Montrose.

A Spanish war broke out, in which Admiral Byng gained a signal victory at sea off Cape Passaro in Sicily. Yet these wars at home and abroad added fourteen millions to the national debt, which now exceeded forty-seven millions.

In 1722, the nation was disturbed by another conspiracy in favour of the Pretender. Bishop Atterbury was banished for being implicated in it, and Mr. Layer was hanged at Tyburn.

The year 1715 witnessed the passing of the Riot Act, for the prevention of tumultuous meetings.

In 1716 Lords Derwentwater, Kenmure, Carnwath, Widdrington, and Nairne were executed on Tower Hill. Lord Wintoun, who had been impeached, was acquitted, and Lord Nithesdale escaped in woman's clothes, brought to him by his wife the night before the intended execution.

The same terrible punishment was inflicted on those who, though not of noble rank, had been found among the supporters of the Pretender's claims. Four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn. Two-and-twenty were executed at Preston and Manchester, and about a thousand were permitted to leave the country, being transported to America. In the same year the sittings of Parliament were made septennial ; the act of William making them triennial being repealed.

This period is famous for the impeachment of the Earl of Macclesfield as Lord High-Chancellor, for high crimes and misdemeanours. His accusation was that of having received money for the patronage of places in Chancery. In vain he proved that there was precedent for such corrupt practices. He was imprisoned till the sum of thirty thousand pounds should be paid. It was defrayed in six weeks.

In the following year the clerical Parliament, or Convocation, was suppressed, in consequence of its unruly at-

tacks on Bishop Hoadley. In 1728 and 1742 it renewed its sittings. It now assembles for a few days at the commencement of each session, and efforts are being made by a certain party in the Church to procure for it a more efficient and independent existence, on the ground that, especially since the Reform Bill of 1832, the composition of the House of Commons has assumed so mixed a character that the Church of the country cannot be said to be represented as such in Parliament.

In 1720, the scheme called the South Sea Bubble ruined many thousand families, and wider ruin would have fallen on the country but for the energy of Sir Robert Walpole. Already John Law, a Scotchman, had involved the French people in much distress by his Mississippi scheme. The English Government since the Revolution had, for want of sufficient supplies from Parliament, borrowed from time to time money from the merchants, and in particular the traders of the South Sea. One Blount proposed to the Government, in the name of the South Sea Company, to buy up the debts of the merchants and become the sole creditors of the State. The terms proposed were advantageous. The Company was to redeem the debts of the nation to the merchants on their own terms, and for the interest of the money so redeemed they would be content to receive from the Government for six years five per cent., and afterwards four per cent., the interest being at any time redeemable by the Government. The ruin accrued from the subscriptions to the Company's funds, and the purchase, at a fabulous premium, of shares which were never realized by the trade of the Company.

George I. died while on a visit to Germany, at Osnaburgh, and was buried at Hanover.

MAIN POINTS.

Parentage, coronation, and marriage of George I. His children. Character of the king. Regency on the death of Anne. State of politics. Aim of Lords and Commons. Inquiry into the late negotiation of peace. Impeachments for high treason. Lord Oxford's trial and imprisonment. Erasure of the names of Ormond and

Bolingbroke from the peerage. Acquittal of Lord Oxford. Earl of Mar declares for the Pretender. Battle of Dunblane. Behaviour of Lord Lovat. Battle of Sheriff Muir. Earl of Derwentwater defeated at Preston. Landing of the Pretender. His speedy retirement. Admiral Byng. Passing of the Riot Act. Public political executions. Septennial Parliaments. Impeachment of Lord Macclesfield as Chancellor. Suppression of Convocation. South Sea Company. Death of the king.

CHAPTER XXXV.

GEORGE II. A.D. 1727—A.D. 1760.

GEORGE II. succeeded his father at the age of forty-four years, and was in some points of his character very unlike him. He had nothing of his father's reserve, and was subject to violent outbursts of temper. He was avariciously fond of money, and was singularly obstinate; his obstinacy, as in his father's case, showed itself in a determined support of those whom he had once made up his mind to patronize or befriend, and a resolute adherence to any course of conduct which he once persuaded himself to be just.

His father knew nothing of the English language, and conversed with Sir Robert Walpole in bad Latin, a tongue which the minister had well-nigh forgotten.

In 1705 the king had married Caroline, Princess of Anspach, a woman of beauty and sense, whose patronage of learning (as in the case of Bishop Butler, the author of the "Analogy of Religion") went far to compensate for the king's want of knowledge and taste in literature. She possessed and wisely exercised great influence over her husband during the ten years in which she shared the throne with him.

The issue of this marriage was two sons—Frederick, Prince of Wales, born in 1707, and William, Duke of Cumberland, in 1721, and five daughters.

It was during an afternoon's slumber that Sir Robert Walpole arrived at the king's chamber in the palace of

Richmond with Lord Townsend's letter announcing the death of George I. Sir Spencer Compton was nominated the king's minister; but the queen was in favour of Walpole, who, in a few days, was reinstated, together with his former colleagues.

The first ten or twelve years of this reign present few events of importance. By the Treaty of Seville in 1729, an alliance between England, Spain, and France was established, to which Holland afterwards joined herself, and steps were taken for the complete fortification of Gibraltar.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, was on terms of difference with his parents. His father's character he affected altogether to despise, and at the request of the king set up an independent establishment for himself at Norfolk House, near St. James's-square. Soon afterwards the queen died. Frederick had married the Princess Augusta of Saxe Gotha, and the king having made a short trip to Hanover brought back with him Sophia de Walmoden as his mistress, who was created Countess of Yarmouth, the last instance in English history of royal mistresses raised to the Peerage.

The Treaty of Seville was not destined long to hold good. Affairs were now plainly tending to a war with Spain. The grounds of dissension were connected with the trade to America and the West Indies, which the Spaniards were accused of interrupting, and of exercising at the same time cruelties upon the British seamen. One Jenkyns, commander of a trading sloop, who was examined before the House of Commons, had lost an ear, which he carried about with him as a sample of the treatment of the Spaniards, who, disappointed at finding nothing on board his vessel, tore off his ear, with a request that he would carry it home and present it to King George. Under mortal fear, "I recommended my soul to God," said he, "and my cause to my country." There were not wanting some who disbelieved the story; others added that the ear had been parted with in the pillory, and Burke afterwards alluded to the story as the "fable of Jenkyns's ear."

But the nation was roused, and Sir Robert Walpole, though his policy was pacific, found himself compelled to

make preparations for war. A convention in Spain proposed terms, which the king in his speech declared to be "satisfactory." The people were not satisfied, and the address on the king's speech was barely carried in the Commons.

Walpole's opponent was William, grandson of Mr. Thomas Pitt, governor of Madras and member for Old Sarum. The best men were in the Opposition on the question of the Spanish war. The king himself was strongly inclined to war, and Walpole, rather than resign, came over to their policy. War was accordingly declared in October, 1739, to the great rejoicing of the public.

But the war had in fact begun already. A squadron was on its way to the West, which arrived at Porto Bello on the isthmus of Darien. It was under the command of Admiral Vernon, who captured the place.

Next year he sailed for Cartagena, being reinforced by a powerful naval armament under Sir Chaloner Ogle, and troops under the command of Lord Cathcart. When assembled at Jamaica the whole force was found to consist of one hundred and fifteen ships, of which thirty were ships of the line, with 15,000 sailors and 12,000 troops. The garrison of Cartagena, the strongest in the New World, had a garrison of 4000 men and 300 guns. A night assault was bravely made, but unsuccessfully. Lord Cathcart had died, and it was said that Vernon was too jealous of his successor, General Wentworth, to co-operate heartily with him. Fever broke out among the troops and sailors, and Vernon was compelled to return to Jamaica.

Another squadron had been sent out under Commodore Anson to attack the Spanish settlements on the western side of the American continent. As a military movement it failed, as the destruction of the town of Paita was all that was effected, though a rich prize was taken in a Manilla galleon, which had on board bullion and coin worth a million and a half sterling.

The expedition, however, was memorable as a circumnavigation of the globe. The fleet passed Cape Horn, and, *after four years of great hardships, returned to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope.*

Defeats on two or three election questions, unimportant in themselves, showed that Walpole's influence was declining. In 1742 he resigned, and the king, with many expressions of regret and goodwill, created him Earl of Orford. He lived in retirement from that time, and died three years afterwards, having by his long and peaceful administration done much to enrich the country.

The king wished Pulteney to succeed Lord Orford, but he desired and obtained the earldom of Bath, with a seat at the cabinet only, while Sir Spencer Compton, now Lord Wilmington, was the ostensible, and Lord Carteret the real minister.

A motion of Lord Limerick was supported by Lord Bath for an inquiry into the last ten years of Lord Orford's administration. By a small majority the matter was carried so far that a Committee of Inquiry was appointed, but nothing sufficiently serious was brought to light to form the subject of an impeachment. It was sufficiently evident that Walpole had distributed large sums of money among the Commons for the purchase of votes out of the Secret Service Fund; but this practice was of long standing, and continued also after his time to the close of the American war.

England took part in the war of the Austrian succession. In 1740 the Emperor Charles VI. died. It had been guaranteed by the Pragmatic Sanction that his daughter Maria Theresa was to succeed him. But both France and Spain supported the claims of the Elector of Bavaria. Frederick II., surnamed the Great, taking advantage of the conjuncture, entered Silesia and gained a victory over the Austrians at Molwitz. A French army entered Bavaria; the Elector was inaugurated Duke of Austria, and then marched to Vienna, while Maria Theresa took refuge among the Hungarians.

The Parliament of England supported Maria Theresa, voted her a subsidy of 500,000*l.* with 5,000,000*l.* for the expenses of the war. They sent her 16,000 troops under the Earl of Stair, which were reinforced by the same number of Hanoverians in British pay, and 7000 Hessians.

This army marched into Germany and took up its posi-

tion at Hochst between Mentz and Frankfort. Marshal Noailles, seizing the fords on the Main, cut off Lord Stair from provisions, and even his own magazines at Hanau, to which place, however, he determined to make the best of his way. George II., who had gone to Hanover, attended by the Duke of Cumberland and Lord Carteret, resolved to join the British army.

To reach Hanau it was necessary to force a march through Dettingen, which was occupied by the French. Noailles had given the command of this force to his son, De Grammont, who, quitting his vantage ground, advanced to meet the allied army, leaving his artillery so planted on the eminence in his rear as to make it un-serviceable without extreme risk to his own forces. The king and the Duke of Cumberland charged the French at the head of their own troops and gained a signal victory, which compelled the enemy to evacuate Germany. This was the last occasion of a King of England commanding his troops in person.

Such conduct naturally tended to give the king great popularity. Not only would the exhibition of such personal courage tend to this result with the English people, but it was also an important step in the furtherance of a cause with which the Parliament had so far identified itself as to have voted, as we have seen, considerable supplies of money and men. But there was one characteristic of the king's disposition which, however easily accounted for, tended to repress all exuberance of loyalty, and that was his natural preference for Hanoverian men and manners.

The French, whose counsels were, under Cardinal Tencin, far more warlike than under his predecessor Fleury, were desirous of a war against both England and Austria. The cardinal was also personally attached to the House of Stuart, and Prince Charles, son of James, was accordingly encouraged to entertain hopes of reinstalment in the throne and power of his ancestors. At this time he assumed the name of the Chevalier Douglas, and at Dunkirk 15,000 Frenchmen under Marshal Saxe embarked for the English coast. They were met off Dungeness by the

English fleet, under Admiral Norris; but stormy weather dispersed the fleet with great damage and loss of the ships, and Charles returned to Paris without striking a blow. Baffled by sea, the French took up the cause by land, and Louis XIV., with an army of 80,000 men under Marshal Saxe, entered Flanders in person. At the same time Frederic the Great marched into Bohemia and Moravia, but was driven out of these countries by the Hungarian forces of Maria Theresa.

In January 1745 a quadruple alliance was formed between England, Holland, Austria, and Saxony; additional subsidies were voted to Maria Theresa, but the election of her husband to be emperor, under the title of Francis I., tended to bring about a peace.

The great event of this campaign was the battle of Fontenoy. On the French side Marshal Saxe commanded, with 76,000 men; the allied army amounted to no more than 50,000, yet the British and Hanoverians, under the Duke of Cumberland and his military tutor, Lord Ligonier, might have broken the French lines had not the Dutch taken to flight. This was followed by the capture, by the French, of many of the towns in the Low Countries.

It also seemed to Prince Charles a favourable opportunity for another invasion of England. Neither the Scotch nor the French lent him any assistance; but he contrived to raise money by pawning his jewels, and through the English merchants resident at Nantes procured the use of two French ships of war. They fell in with a British man-of-war, which crippled one of the French ships and compelled her to return. In the other Charles made good his passage to Moidart, on the coast of Inverness, with seven adherents. The Highland chieftains sympathized with him, though they thought his project an insane one. The Clans met at Glenfinnan, from which place Charles began his march with 1600 men.

The English commander-in-chief in Scotland, Sir John Cope, marched northwards, while Charles, passing him, reached Blair Atholl and was there strengthened by further reinforcements.

He entered Perth, being heartily welcomed by the
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citizens. He was here joined by Drummond, whom he had made Duke of Perth, and Lord George Murray, and having spent his last coin was glad to receive five hundred pounds presented to him by the town. Thence he marched to Edinburgh and took possession of Holyrood House, while the heralds were ordered to proclaim King James VIII.

The castle was held by the king's troops. The armies of Charles and Sir John Cope met at Preston Pans. The army of the former consisted of 2500 men, fifty horse, and one useless iron gun. Cope's forces amounted to 2200, and he had six pieces of artillery; but the question was not determined by open fight. A path was discovered across the morass which separated the two armies, and by this Charles determined to make a night attack. The king's troops fled in the utmost confusion from Edinburgh to Coldstream, and thence to Berwick.

Had 5000 French troops landed at this crisis the Stuarts might have been restored; but the opportunity was lost. George II., who was at the time of the defeat in Hanover, returned in great alarm, having sent for 6000 auxiliary troops from Holland.

Charles remained at Holyrood, and James VIII. was generally proclaimed throughout Scotland.

And now large succours were brought in. The town of Glasgow gave him 5000*l.* The French sent 5000 stand of arms, with some officers, and Charles's army soon numbered 6000 men. He determined to march into England, but the country was in active preparation. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended; Marshal Wade had an army of 10,000 men at Newcastle, and in the midland counties another was recruiting for the Duke of Cumberland.

Charles seized Carlisle, and thence marched to Manchester, where he was enthusiastically received, but he was in a hard case. Beside the two armies mentioned, another was now forming at Finchley.

Admiral Vernon was ordered to cruise in the Channel to intercept all French ships, while Admiral Byng blockaded the east coast of Scotland. Lord George Murray

alone was for advancing ; his counsels prevailed, and the army of the Chevalier reached Derby.

London was thrown into utter consternation, but all were relieved by hearing that Murray himself had advised a retreat from Derby, on the ground of having received no sufficient help either from England or France.

Charles exerted every effort of argument, entreaty, and even menace, to induce his generals to proceed, but to no purpose. They retreated to Glasgow, and thence to Stirling.

Having received reinforcements and help from France, the Chevalier besieged the Castle of Stirling. General Hawley attempted to raise the siege, but was defeated, and suffered great loss at Falkirk Muir, and fled to Edinburgh. But the siege was unsuccessful, and it being now mid-winter, the forces of Charles were disbanded.

Early in the spring they again took the field, and a battle was fought at Culloden.

The Duke of Cumberland made masterly arrangements, and being well supplied with artillery gained a complete victory, which for ever put an end to the efforts of the Chevalier and the adherents of the Stuarts. The attempts at rallying were with thanks discouraged by Charles himself. The Duke of Cumberland fixed his quarters at Fort Augustus, where he practised such cruelties and outrages as gained for him the surname of "the Butcher Cumberland." On his return to London, he was greeted with enthusiastic welcome, and received a pension of 25,000*l.* a year, settled on himself and his heirs.

Many of Charles's adherents were caught and executed, among whom were the Earl of Kilmarnock, Lord Balmerino, and Lord Lovat. Lord George Murray, who had taken the most active part in the rebellion, escaped abroad.

In 1747 the English gained two naval victories, one by Anson off Finisterre, the other by Hawke, off Belle Isle. The success of France and the protracted expenses of the war induced in England a desire of peace, to which the French themselves were not averse.

But the king and the Duke of Cumberland were fond of war, and Maria Theresa not satisfied with results hitherto obtained.

Lord Chesterfield, famous as a scholar and courtier, had held the office of prime minister, till, finding his advocacy of peace disregarded, he resigned office, after having distinguished himself as a diplomatist in Holland, and as Lord Lieutenant in Ireland.

After his retirement from public life, he introduced, in 1751, a Bill for the reformation of the Calendar, which had outrun the true time by eleven days. The Julian Year or Old Style had been corrected in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII., and had been adopted by every European country, except Sweden and Russia. By this alteration the year was to commence on January 1st, instead of March 25th.

A definitive treaty of peace was signed in 1748 at Aix-la-Chapelle. All conquests from France were to be restored by England, and the Earl of Sussex and Lord Cathcart were sent to Paris as hostages for the restitution of Cape Breton.

The French undertook to expel the Pretender from France, and proposed to him to live at Friburg in Switzerland. He obstinately refused to quit Paris. He was accordingly seized, bound, and conveyed to the frontiers of Savoy. He lived a life of solitary wandering, and even paid two visits to England, till in 1772 he married at 52 the young Princess Louisa of Stolberg. They lived at Florence, under the names of the Count and Countess of Albany. His father had died twenty years before this marriage, which in the end proved an unhappy one. They lived together eight years, and then the princess eloped with the poet Alfieri. In 1778, the Young Pretender died at Rome.

In March 1751, Frederick Prince of Wales expired, leaving eight children, and the likelihood of the birth of another.

The eldest son George, now twelve years old, was made Prince of Wales. In the event of the king's death, the *Dowager Princess of Wales* was to be Regent with a *Council of ten*, consisting of the Duke of Cumberland and

nine principal officers of state. The Earl of Bute had gained great influence with the Dowager Princess.

The French war was renewed by quarrels between the English and French settlers in North America and the East Indies. The prize which France proposed to herself was Minorca, which the treaty of Utrecht had secured to England. The French were exasperated by the capture of two of their ships by Admiral Boscawen off Newfoundland, and by the fact that, without any declaration of war, Admiral Sir Edward Hawke had received orders to sink every French ship that he could find between the coasts of France and Ireland.

The Duke of Newcastle, who was at this time prime minister, had neglected all necessary preparations, till suddenly awakening to the urgency of the case, he sent out Admiral Byng with ten badly-equipped men of war. Admiral de la Galissonière bore down upon this poor fleet with twelve ships of the line and transports, conveying troops to the number of 16,000. The garrison of St. Philip at Minorca, held out bravely under old General Blakeney.

On the appearance of the French fleet, Admiral West, the second in command, engaged with and dispersed the ships opposed to his own division, but Byng retired, leaving Minorca to its fate. The garrison capitulated, and was allowed to quit the island with all honours of war; but Minorca was lost to England.

The popular indignation against Byng was excessive. A court martial at Portsmouth acquitted him of treachery, but condemned him of not having done his best to relieve the garrison, and disable the fleet of the enemy. The court recommended him to mercy, but the national outcry was so loud that it seemed impossible to act upon the recommendation, and Byng was shot upon the quarter-deck of the *Monarque*,—in the well known phrase of Voltaire, “pour encourager les autres.”

Under these untoward circumstances the king, much against his inclination, was compelled to learn the lesson that Pitt was the only man strong enough with the Parliament and the people to hold the office of prime minister.

Pitt's ministry began with measures of war. A combined military and naval expedition against Rochfort under Sir Edward Hawke and Sir John Mordaunt was unsuccessful, through want of energy in the latter; but a more important event was at hand.

This was nothing less than the commencement of what has been called the Seven Years' War. The first step in this war was the seizure of Dresden in Saxony by Frederic, King of Prussia. He had resolved on taking this step upon hearing that France and Austria had entered into combination to carry out the partition of Prussia according to the treaty of Versailles. The King of Prussia courted the alliance of England, and the Duke of Cumberland proceeded to the Continent to aid his cause.

Frederic of Prussia had invaded Bohemia, and gained a great victory near Prague, but at Kolin had been in his turn defeated, and compelled to retire. The Duke of Cumberland was unable to withstand the French army, which soon overran Hanover. He took up a position at Stade, upon the Elbe, which the Duke de Richelieu compelled him to abandon, and Hanover was lost.

On his return he was received by his father in such a way as induced him to throw up all his appointments, and to retire into private life. The conduct of the duke was premature, for Frederic afterwards retrieved his fortune, and at the instance of Pitt received a handsome subsidy from England.

In 1758, Pitt projected a plan of energetic reprisal against the French in America.

Admiral Boscawen and General, afterwards Lord Amherst, were sent to the coast and continent of North America. With them, as second in command to General Amherst, was sent young Wolfe, whose behaviour in the unsuccessful affair of Rochfort had attracted Pitt's attention. One hundred and fifty ships and 12,000 troops composed this armament. Louisburg, the capital of the province of Cape Breton, after a siege of two months surrendered, and the island of St. John soon followed the example. The change of its name to Prince Edward's Island in honour of the next brother of the Prince of

Wales, was a monument of the success of the British arms, to which the skill and bravery of Wolfe had largely contributed.

It is remarkable that in the year before, Clive had taken the French settlement at Chandernagore.

The continental war proceeded with fluctuating successes.

Pitt planned an expedition against Cherbourg, under Commodore Howe and Lord Anson, the command of the troops being given to Charles the second Duke of Marlborough, and Lord George Sackville. It was unsuccessful; but another, under General Bligh and Prince Edward, on landing found the town deserted; the better part of the artillery was carried off and the rest destroyed. The expedition afterwards landed at St. Malo, but the Duke d'Aiguillon coming down upon them with a strong force, they beat a retreat to the boats with the loss of 1000 men.

In 1759 the arms of England were victorious by sea and land. Admiral Rodney bombarded Havre, while Admiral Boscawen dispersed the squadron which had been fitted out at Toulon, off the Portuguese coast. A yet more decided advantage was gained by Sir Edward Hawke near Quiberon, where he sunk four ships and captured two more of the fleet under De Conflans.

Frederic of Prussia had sustained a disastrous defeat near Kunersdorf. On the other hand, Prince Ferdinand had gained a brilliant victory at Minden, which would have been more complete but for the remissness of Lord George Sackville, who commanded 10,000 English auxiliaries, and disobeyed the order to charge the routed enemy. So great was the indignation against Lord George, both in England and Germany, that Pitt deprived him of all his preferments.

But the design which Pitt had most at heart was the invasion of Canada, which he planned himself, and of which he was determined to give the chief conduct to his friend, whom he called his model general, Wolfe.

Pitt's plan of operations was by three divisions, which were to meet at Quebec. One of colonists and natives under General Prideaux and Sir William Johnson was to

advance to Montreal, by way of Niagara, down the lake Ontario, and through the Thousand Isles of the St. Lawrence; the main body, under General Amherst, was to find its way up the Hudson, by Lakes George and Champlain and the St. Lawrence, by the river Richelieu, and so form a junction with Wolfe, who was to reach Quebec from the mouth of the St. Lawrence. The two former expeditions were successful, save that the season was too far advanced to allow them to reach Wolfe at Quebec.

Wolfe had landed his men out of Admiral Saunders's fleet at the Isle of Orleans, which lies in the midstream of the St. Lawrence a little below Quebec. On the plains of Abraham, behind the city, the French army of 10,000 men, lay, under the command of the Marquis de Montcalm. As the French general refused to be drawn from his position, nothing remained for Wolfe but to attack him in his entrenchments. The army was silently conveyed up the river to a point now called Wolfe's Cove, where the rugged and precipitous banks of the St. Lawrence yielded an arduous access to the plains above.

It is said that as he rowed along the river, the young general repeated several verses of Gray's Elegy, saying that he would rather have been the writer of that poem than the conqueror of Quebec. The army scaled the heights and Montcalm was compelled to give battle. The contest was short but decisive. Wolfe had ordered his men to hold their fire till close to the enemy. He himself received three bullet wounds—the first in the wrist (which he affected to treat lightly, binding his handkerchief about the wound), the second in the groin, and the third, shortly afterwards, in the breast, which was fatal.

Being carried to the rear, while every attention was paid to him, he heard the words "They run." "Who run?" asked Wolfe. "The enemy," was the reply. "Then God be praised—I die happy," said Wolfe, and expired, at the age of thirty-three.

A few paces off lay Montcalm in the same condition; he too had given his life to his country, but Quebec was lost to France, and in the course of the next year the British flag waved on every stronghold of Canada.

The conquest of Quebec threw a lustre over the close of George II.'s reign.

The king died suddenly from rupture of the heart in the same year, at the advanced age of seventy-seven.

MAIN POINTS.

Character of George II. His marriage and family. Character of the queen. Treaty of Seville. Condition of Prince Frederick. Death of the queen. Countess of Yarmouth. Declaration of war with Spain. Admiral Vernon. Commodore Anson. Walpole retires with a peerage. Secret service money. War of the Austrian succession. Battle of Dettingen. Effort of the Pretender. Quadruple alliance. Battle of Fontenoy. The Young Pretender lands in Scotland. Battle of Preston Pans. Proclamation of James VIII. Charles's advance to Derby and retreat. Battle of Culloden. Execution of the Pretender's adherents. Correction of the Calendar. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The Young Pretender's marriage. Family of Frederick, Prince of Wales. Naval actions with the French. Loss of Minorca, and execution of Admiral Byng. Commencement of the Pitt ministry. Seven Years' War. Reprisals upon the French in North America. Retreat from St. Malo. Victories of Rodney and Hawke. Invasion of Canada. Conquest of Quebec. Death of the king.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

GEORGE III. A.D. 1760—A.D. 1820.

WHEN the young prince ascended the throne as his grandfather's successor he was twenty-two years of age. He could speak the English language, and could express English sympathy. "He glорied," so he wrote upon the copy of his speech, to be delivered on the opening of his first Parliament, "in the name of Briton." His liberality appeared in the obliteration or oblivion of the party distinctions of the late reign. Even the Jacobites showed themselves, and received appointments.

Lord Bute it was plain would be the king's chosen adviser. To him the seals of the Secretary of State had been transferred from the hands of Lord Holderness. Legge retiring, Lord Barrington became Chancellor of

the Exchequer, Lord Henley became Lord Chancellor, and in the Commons Pitt was paramount.

In the year after his accession the young king married Charlotte, sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, who was at the time only seventeen years old. Their coronation, at Westminster, followed in the course of the same month of September. By the same Archbishop (Secker) of Canterbury, George III. was baptized, married, and crowned.

The war in Germany had produced no decisive results, and France had suffered enough to wish strongly for peace.

The Duke de Choiseul was the ostensible, Madame de Pompadour, the mistress of Louis XV., the real minister of the country. A conference was to be held at Augsburg, but the French minister proposed a specific negotiation between France and England. Pitt backed up the negotiation by sending a force of 9000 men, under Commodore Keppel and General Hodgson, which took Belle Isle, a fortified island on the coast of Brittany. This was regarded as a set-off against Minorca, as a point of honour to the British arms, though the place was useless to this country.

Lord Rolle took Dominica, one of the French West Indian Islands; and in the East, Pondicherry, the last of the French positions in India, was taken.

Charles III. was now on the throne of Spain, and urged Choiseul to persuade England to accept the claims of France and Spain in combination. This Pitt refused to do, whereupon the "Family Compact," as it was called, was formed between the French and Spanish kings, into which came Ferdinand, the third son of the King of Spain, to whom he had left the Kingdom of Naples, as, by the treaty of Vienna, the crowns of Spain and Naples might not be united.

When Pitt heard of the "Family Compact," he strongly urged the immediate declaration of war with Spain and the seizure of Spanish ships without loss of time, in *reimbursement of the expenses of the war.* Being refused, ~~he~~ he resigned, and received a pension of 3000l. a year for

three lives—his own, his wife's, who was made Baroness Chatham, and their eldest son's. So ended the renowned Pitt administration, which brought Lord Bute into power.

But Pitt's anticipations proved correct. The Spaniards went to war, and on the refusal of Portugal to join in the declaration sent troops into that country. The Portuguese applied for help to England, which Lord Bute could not refuse. Although Bute thus acted as if he were Prime Minister, that office was at this time held by the Duke of Newcastle; but, Bute having refused to support the King of Prussia, the duke tendered his resignation. Lord Bute, who felt that all the credit of the Spanish war was given to Pitt, was ready to accept the offers of accommodation which were now made both by France and Spain, although the British arms were victorious in Germany, in Portugal, and especially in the West Indies, where Admiral Rodney took possession of all the smaller islands of the Caribbean Sea.

The Havannah, too, capitulated, after a desperate siege, and produced money and booty to the value of three millions sterling. The Philippine Islands were taken about the same time, and several rich Spanish galleons.

Bute's pacific measures seem to have been dictated by fear of the increase of the national debt, which had doubled during the war, and now reached more than one hundred and twenty millions sterling. A treaty was concluded at Paris, in 1763, in which Minorca was exchanged for Belle Isle; Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, and Canada were ceded to England, and some of the West Indian Islands restored to France.

All conquests made during the negotiations were to be given up. In this way Havannah and the Philippines were yielded, but Florida (a poor bargain) was given to England in exchange.

On the Peninsula of India the English had planted forts and settlements in the reign of Elizabeth, and established a trading company. The French had rivalled them in these parts, and by the late treaty their principal settlement of Pondicherry was restored to them; but the French soon dissolved their East India Company.

and abandoned the country. The English East India Company first became important in the time of Charles II., who ceded to them the settlement of Bombay, which had come to him as part of the dowry of Catherine of Braganza. Fort St. George at Madras had also been established.

In 1702, during the reign of William and Mary, a rival Company was amalgamated with that to which Charles had given his charter. A little before this time, in the year 1698, a grant of land for settlement, at a rental, had been procured from Aurungzebe the Mogul Emperor, on the Hooghly. On this Fort William was erected, which became the nucleus of the present capital of Calcutta.

The French, under Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry, had paraded as captives the English residents at Fort St. George or Madras, whom La Bourdonnais had taken prisoners.

Madras was restored at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; but Dupleix met with one who was more than his match in his endeavours, through intrigue, to extend the French power in India at the expense of British influence. This was Clive, who, after several exploits, and a two-years' visit to England for the sake of his health, returned to India with the appointment of governor of Fort St. David and the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in the king's service. He was soon wanted.

The Viceroy of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, had seized Calcutta, and thrown the English residents, to the number of one hundred and forty-six, into a small dungeon, afterwards known as the Black Hole; where confinement without air, in a tropical climate, caused the death of the greater number before the morning. In retaliation, Clive, with a little army of 900 Europeans and 1500 Sepoys, compelled the Surajah to make peace, though his army amounted to 40,000 men.

Clive's next feat was to take Chandernagore, a French fort, higher up the Hooghly; but his most brilliant exploit was the battle of Plassy. Surajah Dowlah had 50,000 men and forty pieces of cannon; Clive only 1000 Europeans and double the number of Sepoys, with eight

field-pieces and two howitzers. He gained a splendid victory, and laid, by this deed, the foundation of the British Empire in India.

A vassal of Surajah Dowlah, Meer Jaffier, had rebelled, and installed himself in Moorshedabad as Nabob of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar. He ceded to the English the country within the ditch of Calcutta and between Calcutta and the sea. The East India Company made Clive governor of Bengal, and Meer Jaffier, in return for his assistance against the Emperor of Delhi, presented him with an estate worth nearly 30,000*l.* a year.

In 1760 Clive returned to England, and received an Irish Peerage, as Baron Plassy and Lord Clive. He was also returned a Member of Parliament.

In the same year the defeat of Lally by Sir Eyre Coote secured to the English the possession of the Carnatic.

Lord Bute had become so unpopular, both for his pacific policy, against which all Pitt's eloquence was directed, and for his patronage of Scotchmen, that, from fear of popular violence, he resigned the premiership, and was succeeded by Mr. Grenville.

The Grenville ministry was remarkable for the prosecution of Wilkes, the editor of a newspaper called the *North Briton*, which had for some time past exhibited a scurrilous freedom of debate, especially against Bute (whom Wilkes called Jack Boot), and the peace policy.

The famous No. 45 contained an attack on the king's speech at the close of the session, in which his majesty had spoken of the peace as honourable and beneficial. Wilkes was sent to the Tower, liberated on his privilege as Member of Parliament, and sent back to the Tower after the session.

In the next session the Commons condemned No. 45, and dismissed Wilkes from his seat in Parliament, ordering the copy to be burnt in public by the hangman. The mob shouted "Wilkes and Liberty." He gained a verdict of 1000*l.* damages against Mr. Wood, the Secretary of State, for forcible entry into his house, but was condemned for libel against Lord Sandwich and Bishop War-

burton, in an obscene work called "Essay on Woman," in imitation of Pope's "Essay on Man."

The case of Wilkes owed its importance to the question which was raised upon it as to the legality of general warrants, that is, the apprehension of several individuals under a general charge. It is obvious that this assumes the guilt of the apprehended without that guilt being proved.

But a far more important feature in the history of the Grenville ministry, is the extension of the Stamp Act to the North American Colonies, a proceeding which was the first of a train of circumstances which ended in the disruption of America from England.

It was argued that as the late wars with Spain, and yet more with France, had been to some extent carried on for the protection of the British Colonies in North America, it was fair that they should be called upon to pay part of the expenses. At this time these colonies amounted to thirteen states, with a population of about two millions of Europeans, and half a million people of colour. The Puritan States of New England were four: Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. The remainder were—2. New York. 3. New Jersey. 4. Pennsylvania. 5. Delaware. 6. Maryland. 7. Virginia. 8. North and South Carolina. 9. Georgia.

Oppressed by the difficulties and dangers of new colonists they were already aggrieved at the weight of the Customs' duties, which now were made still heavier by the proposed addition of the Stamp duty. Moreover, they complained that this was a violation of the constitutional principle that the people of England should tax themselves. They, however, professed their readiness to entertain the question, if the Secretary of State in the king's name would address the several Houses of Assembly upon the matter. This suggestion was not adopted, and in 1765 the American Stamp Act passed the Parliament. The news was received in the States with a storm of indignation. The use of the stamps was universally declined. Meanwhile Grenville resigned.

The king had shown symptoms of insanity, but the

attack passed off. He had proposed a Regency, and Grenville persuaded the king to omit his mother's name. When he recovered he felt aggrieved, and negotiated with Pitt and Temple about a new ministry. But these declined, and the Marquis of Rockingham became Premier, a man of integrity and common sense, but no talent.

By Pitt's eloquence the Parliament was induced to repeal the Stamp Act. Another act, however, declared their authority over the colonies to be supreme. Great soreness, therefore, still existed in the minds of the Americans against the mother country.

Pitt was again sent for by the king to form a ministry. In this he succeeded, and then demanded a peerage, which he received with the title of Earl of Chatham. But his health failed, and severe gout incapacitated Lord Chatham for business. In his absence the opposition carried a reduction of the land-tax, by which half a million was lost to the Exchequer. Townshend to replace this laid more taxes upon the American colonies; they were laid on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours. He died, and Lord North became Chancellor of the Exchequer.

In the elections for the Parliament of 1768, Wilkes, though still an outlaw, was returned member for Middlesex. Lord Mansfield pronounced the outlawry void by a technical fault, but the original verdicts were confirmed, and Wilkes was sent to prison for two years from his arrest, and fined 500*l.* each for No. 45 and the "Essay on Woman."

Desperate riots followed, but Wilkes surrendered himself at the King's Bench prison. In the session of 1769, Wilkes was condemned by the House of Commons for libel against Lord Weymouth, the Secretary of State, and expelled the House. Three times the House declared him incapable of sitting, and three times the electors of Middlesex returned him. But the ministers put in Colonel Luttrell in his place. Wilkes was more than ever the idol of the common people, and soon afterwards he recovered 4000*l.* damages against Lord Halifax for seizing his papers.

The animosity in America increased so that the cabinet

resolved to repeal the obnoxious taxes, but Lord North carried an exception in the item of tea.

Lord Chatham had now recovered, and the king had induced Lord North to take the premiership, which he held together with the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer.

In 1773, the final disruption of the colonies took place. The tea ships were attacked in the harbour of Boston, and the cargoes to the value of several thousand pounds thrown into the sea. They were encouraged by feeling, that in the British Parliament their cause was sustained by such men as Chatham, Burke, and Charles Fox. The first outbreak was at Lexington, in 1775, where a party of British soldiers were attacked by some American militiamen—the soldiers had been sent by General Gage, commandant at Boston, to destroy some stores—their retreat was a rout, for the Americans hung on their rear and killed 273 of their number.

Two months later the rival parties met in battle on Bunker's Hill, a height overlooking Boston harbour. It was a drawn battle, but the British troops were made to feel the strength and resoluteness of the colonists.

A general congress at Philadelphia gave the command of the American army to George Washington. The Americans under Montgomery and Arnold made an invasion into Canada; Montgomery took Montreal, but while besieging Quebec his forces were repulsed and Montgomery killed. Seventeen thousand Hessian troops had now joined the British forces in America, which had reached the strength of 55,000 men.

The American feeling had undergone considerable alteration. Even after the battle of Bunker's Hill they desired reconciliation with England, and had sent a petition to the king to this effect, which they called "The Olive Branch;" but his majesty declined to notice it, or to recognise any self-constituted congress of his subjects.

In 1776, the British general Howe was compelled to evacuate Boston and sail for Halifax in Nova Scotia, and on the 4th of July was issued by the congress of Philadelphia, the famous document called "The Declaration

of Independence." A few months later General Howe returned, and drove Washington from New York. But Howe not following up his advantages, Washington recrossed the Delaware, beyond which he had retreated before Lord Cornwallis, and recovered nearly the whole country of New Jersey. In return for these skilful manœuvres extraordinary powers were conferred upon Washington by the Congress.

At the opening of the third campaign in 1777, aid in money and forces reached the Americans from France, with the young Marquis de la Fayette, not twenty years of age, who undertook to serve without pay, and to whom the Americans gave the rank of a Major-General. A victory at the Brandywine River and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in England that the colonies might yet be subdued. All such hopes were annihilated by the disastrous defeat of General Burgoyne, who being surrounded by the enemy at Saratoga, was compelled to surrender with all his artillery and military stores to the American general, Gates.

The news in England led to a subscription for maintaining 15,000 more soldiers on the American continent. On the side of France it was announced that Louis XVI. was prepared to recognise the independence of America, and treaties of commerce and alliance were signed between the two countries at Paris. Lord North attempted conciliatory measures; but the French ambassador, the Marquis de Noailles, announcing contemptuously the conclusion of the French treaties, the English minister deserted his post, and advised the king to send for Lord Chatham to form a ministry.

But Lord Chatham's life was drawing to a close. The Duke of Richmond was to move an address to the king recommending peace even at the price of recognising American independence. Chatham had always advocated conciliation, but not on terms derogatory to the dignity of the empire. He went down to the House of Lords and spoke with great fervour and eloquence, though in extreme pain and sickness. The duke spoke again and Chatham *rose to reply, but his strength had left him and he fell in*

a swoon on the floor of the House. The peers crowded to his assistance; he was conveyed home, and died in a few weeks, in the 70th year of his age.

From 1778 to 1780 the campaign was carried on chiefly in the Southern States. Charleston was taken by Sir Henry Clinton.

Meanwhile war was raging in many quarters. An indecisive action took place off Ushant between Admiral Keppel and the French fleet under D'Orvilliers. France, Spain, and Holland were in arms against England during the concluding years of the American war. Russia, Sweden, and Denmark formed what was termed an "armed neutrality," which could only be construed to mean that they should in combination be ready for war as soon as circumstances should invite them.

Yet for three years was Gibraltar besieged by the French and Spaniards in conjunction, without success.

In 1780 took place in London the Gordon riots. Two years before, a certain act of 1708, passed in consequence of the great influx of Roman Catholic priests into England after the peace of Ryswick, had been repealed at the instance of Sir George Saville. The restrictions of the act had been preposterously severe, yet its repeal excited the indignation of the more bigoted Protestants. Lord George Gordon, a younger son of the Duke of Gordon, put himself at the head of the movement, and accompanied

- by an immense mob, went to the Parliament with a petition. Lord North sent for the guards. The mob dispersed; burnt the chapels of the Sardinian and Bavarian embassies, and took possession of London, burning more of the Roman Catholic chapels, breaking open Newgate, releasing about three hundred prisoners, and setting fire to the buildings; burning down the houses of Lord Mansfield and Sir George Saville, with other residences. Nearly five hundred persons were killed or wounded in these riots. The soldiers could only restore peace by firing sharply upon the mob. Lord George was committed to the Tower on the charge of treason, but was acquitted. More than twenty of the rioters were executed.

This period was illustrious in our naval annals on the

score both of battle and discovery. Lord Rodney, besides victories in the West Indies, gained a great action with the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent. The Spaniards retaliated by capturing an English fleet of nearly sixty sail of merchantmen off the Canaries, which were convoyed by only two men-of-war. The American ships and naval stores were disabled and captured by Admiral Arbuthnot.

In 1781 the American war was brought to a close. Lord Cornwallis with 7000 men had taken up his position at York Town, a place devoid both of natural defences and strong fortifications. He was surrounded by an army of 18,000 men, commanded by Washington, La Fayette, and St. Simon. The English general capitulated after a siege of nearly a week.

In the following year General Conway carried a resolution in the House against any further attempt at the reduction of the American colonists, which led to Lord North's resignation, after having held the premiership twelve years. Two young men had now entered upon the arena of political life who were destined to play distinguished parts as statesmen; these were Mr. Pitt, the second son of Lord Chatham, and Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

Henry Grattan, a Protestant Irish member, carried an address to the Crown asserting the independence of the Irish Houses. The state of the country forbade any risk of ill-will on the part of Ireland, and Fox carried a motion for repealing the Act of George I. constituting the Union.

The British navy was victorious in the West Indian seas under Lord Rodney, and so retrieved in some measure the disgrace of late defeats, by which all the Leeward Islands had been lost to England, except Barbadoes and Antigua. Minorca had surrendered to the French.

Admirals Rodney and Hood engaged the French fleet sent to capture Jamaica, and gained a brilliant victory over the French admiral, La Grasse.

Another admiral, Lord Howe, was sent to relieve Gibraltar, which had suffered great hardships from a siege of more than three years. Lord Howe entered the bay of Gibraltar, and the combined fleet did not venture to attack

him ; but the courage and skill of General Eliot (who, for his conduct at Gibraltar, was raised to the peerage under the title of Lord Heathfield) had already virtually closed the siege by discharges of red-hot shot among the ships and floating batteries of the enemy.

The raising of the siege of Gibraltar was the last event of the war. Articles were signed in November, 1782, recognising American independence—the illustrious Dr. Franklin being at the time American minister at Paris—the boundaries of the States were determined, and the right of fishery on the banks of Newfoundland was granted. Nearly ten millions sterling, besides life-annuities to the value of 120,000*l.* a year, were given as compensation money to those colonists who had suffered from their adherence to the cause of the mother country.

In 1783 George III. received Mr. Adams, the first minister from the United States, declaring that as he had been the last to desire American separation, he should now be the first to recognise American independence.

The preliminaries of a peace between England, France, and Spain were signed at Versailles in 1783. Several exchanges of conquered territory were made. St. Lucia and Tobago were ceded to France. Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat being received in return. Senegal and Goree in Africa, were ceded by England, Fort James and the River Gambia retained. In India the French recovered Chandernagore, Pondicherry, and Surat. The demolition of Dunkirk according to the treaty of Utrecht was cancelled.

Spain received Minorca and the Floridas, while the Spanish king restored the Bahama Islands to England, and certain rights of cutting logwood on the shores of the Spanish settlements in America.

In 1784 Pitt found himself in office as the result of a general election, and carried a bill for the better regulation of the Government of India, by the appointment of a Board of Control ; and two years afterwards carried another for the increase of the income of the Prince of Wales, who had now reached his majority and had Carlton House assigned him as a separate residence. He was to receive an in-

crease of 10,000*l.* a year income, with the further donation of 161,000*l.* for the payment of his debts, and 20,000*l.* for the improvements at Carlton House.

In 1786 Burke brought forward the impeachment of Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General of India. He was followed by Charles James Fox and Richard Brinsley Sheridan. The trial lasted seven years, and ended in the acquittal of Hastings, whom, however, it left penniless. He spent his last days at Daylesford, his family seat, maintained by a pension of 4000*l.* a year from the East India Company. He had left England in 1750 as a clerk in the service of the company. His chief victories were over the Mahrattas of Central India, and the Mahometan Rajahs of Mysore, Hyder Ali, and his son Tippoo Saib. The main articles of the impeachment were that to defray the expenses of the war he had plundered the sacred city of Benares and the Princesses of Oude.

It is remarkable that a yet more melancholy end should have closed the career of Robert Clive, the other great founder of our Indian empire. Colonel Burgoyne, whose misadventure contributed to the loss of our American colonies, moved a vote of censure in the Commons against Clive. In this, as in the case of Hastings, the motive seemed to be jealousy of the rank, wealth, and reputation which he had enjoyed, and with which he was living in sumptuous style at Claremont House, having been raised to the peerage as Baron Clive, of Plassy. To the resolution of censure it was appended, on the motion of Mr. Wedderburn, "that Robert Lord Clive did at the same time render great and meritorious services to his country." But his spirit never recovered from the imputation which had been cast upon him; and for the second time in his life he attempted suicide; on this occasion but too successfully, in the year 1774, before he had reached his 50th year.

In 1788 the king was seized with a violent illness which terminated in symptoms of mental aberration. From this first attack, however, he recovered, and the royal convalescence was proclaimed in the following year.

An event was now impending which was to shake the fabric of civilized society to its base.

The French Revolution lasted from 1789 to 1795. It was excited by three main causes—the infidel writings of Voltaire and Rousseau, the oppression of the people by the aristocracy, and the reckless extravagance of the Court.

The ancient Bourbon monarchy was overturned; Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette his queen were guillotined; the religion of Christ was suppressed in favour of the Goddess of Reason; and the soil of France drenched with blood. The policy of France, which consisted in fraternizing with any nation which should be ready to recognise the same definition of liberty which she had herself affirmed, led first to the jealousy and dread of her interference, and next to declaration of hostilities against her on the part of almost every country of Europe. Nothing could exceed the energy of the French, who in a very short time had eight armies on foot.

The Duke of York, having crossed with an army of 10,000 English, defeated the French at St. Amant in conjunction with the imperial forces under the Prince of Coburg, but failed in an attack on Dunkirk.

In the East and West Indies the English arms were more successful. Chandernagore, Pondicherry, and other French settlements in the former, fell into English hands, and one or two of the smaller West Indian islands, with some settlements in Newfoundland.

In the same year, Admiral Lord Hood, aided by a Spanish squadron, took possession of Toulon in the name of Louis XVII.

The recovery of Toulon by the French artillery, which had gained a position on the neighbouring heights, was the deed of Napoleon Bonaparte, who now for the first time appeared on the stage, though in the character of a general second in command.

Sir Sidney Smith was ordered before retiring to burn the French ships and arsenal with the assistance of the Spanish admiral, Langara. Three sail of the line and twelve frigates were taken to England, and nine sail of the line, with some smaller vessels, burnt by the English ~~and~~. Many of the Royalist French were taken on

board to save them from the vengeance of the Republicans. The hatred of England on the part of France had now risen to an extreme pitch, and in the Convention, Garnier des Saintes proposed and carried a resolution denouncing Pitt as an enemy of the human race.

In the spring of 1794 the French had three armies on their northern frontier amounting to 500,000 men. The allied army of Austrians, Prussians, British, and Hanoverians amounted to about 200,000 less, beside which were other disadvantages. Jealousy existed between Austria and Prussia—the latter required large subsidies from England, and Russia would not even put an army in motion without the help of British gold.

The plan of the allies was to advance gradually upon Paris. This plan was never effected. They were worsted at Turcoing, where the Duke of York narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. They retrieved the defeat a few days afterwards at Pont Achin, where the English behaved so well that an order of the Convention forbade quarter for the future to be given to British and Hanoverians. By a victory over the allies at Fleurus, the French gained all the principal towns in Flanders, and in the early winter proceeded to overrun Holland. The Dutch were prevented by the frost from laying their country under water. Many of the principal Dutch families, among whom was the Stadholder himself, took refuge in England. The British forces made the best of their way home, by way of Bremen, after enduring great hardships.

At sea our arms were far more successful. Lord Hood annexed Corsica to the British Crown, which, however, revolted to the French in the following year.

The names of two Englishmen were now first heard by the public, which afterwards became signally illustrious—these were Colonel, afterwards Sir John Moore, and Captain, afterwards Lord Nelson, the latter of whom lost an eye at the siege of Calvi, on the coast of Corsica.

Another brilliant victory was gained by Lord Howe over the French fleet off Brest, in which seven sail of the enemy were captured, and one sunk.

As the Dutch had submitted to the French, England

took reprisals by seizing all their settlements in the East and West Indies, and at the Cape of Good Hope.

In 1796, Spain made a treaty with France at the instigation of Don Emanuel Godoy, and soon afterwards declared war against England.

In the following year the French determined on a grand invasion of England, the maritime forces of Spain and Holland being their subsidiaries.

A great victory was gained over the Spanish fleet by Admiral Jervis off Cape St. Vincent. Commodore Nelson, who was at the time in command of a convoy at Gibraltar, had given the admiral intimation of the cruising of the Spanish fleet. In this action the Santissima Trinidad, supposed to be the largest man-of-war in the world, mounting 136 guns on four decks, was disabled. Jervis was raised to the peerage as Lord St. Vincent, and Nelson received the order of the Bath. Four line-of-battle ships were captured.

In the July of the same year, Nelson made an unsuccessful attack on the Spanish town of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe, and there received the shot in his arm which rendered its amputation necessary.

In October of the same year another victory was gained off Camperdown, under Admiral Duncan, over the Dutch fleet. Eight Dutch sail of the line, with three frigates of the largest size, were captured. The victory was rewarded with a peerage and a pension of 3000*l.* a year to Admiral Duncan.

Yet while these brilliant deeds of naval skill and daring were going on, two formidable mutinies of British seamen, one at Spithead and the other at the Nore, caused great uneasiness.

The alleged grounds of discontent were the insufficiency of pay and attendance in sickness. England, especially London, was thrown into the greatest consternation. The mutinies were quelled mainly by the promptitude and energy of Mr. Pitt.

Lord Howe, deservedly popular among the sailors, was sent to treat with the seamen at Portsmouth, and they

returned to their duty on the promise that their case should be fairly considered.

At Sheerness the ships of war were surrounded, so as to cut off the supplies of fresh water and provisions from the land. Parker, the ringleader, surrendered, and the other ships soon followed his example. Parker was hanged from the yard-arm of the flag-ship.

In 1798 Napoleon was in Syria and Egypt; his object was twofold, the opening of a way of conquest and commerce to India, and the plunder of the country. He had sailed from Toulon, and taking Malta on his way, landed at Alexandria. Near Cairo he defeated the Mamelukes at the battle of the Pyramids.

Admiral Nelson descried the French fleet in the Bay of Aboukir, and he resolved at once to give battle. The action is especially remarkable as having been fought during the night. It began at sunset and lasted until daybreak. The French flag-ship L'Orient blew up in the action, having on board the admiral and a crew of 1000 men. Of thirteen men-of-war, nine were taken and two burned. By this brilliant victory the army of Napoleon was shut up in the sands of Egypt. But early in the following year (1799), he led his army across the desert, between Egypt and Palestine, took the town of Jaffa by storm, and laid siege to Acre. Thence he was repulsed by British and Turkish troops, under Sir Sidney Smith. Having returned to Egypt, he embarked with some of his generals in a French frigate by night, leaving letters in which he delegated the army to Ménou and Kleber. His popularity at Paris was unaffected by his ill success, and when the Assembly of the Five Hundred was dissolved, Bonaparte, Siéyès and Ducos were made consuls.

The Rebellion of 1798 in Ireland, indicated too plainly the urgent need of a closer legislative connexion between that country and England. After much debating and strong opposition in Ireland itself, the union of the British and Irish Parliaments was agreed upon. Henceforward, the people of Ireland were to be represented by thirty-two peers and one hundred members in the House of Com-

mons. The discontent of the Irish continued however to manifest itself even after the carrying of the act for the union, and a formidable conspiracy was set on foot, of which Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a brother of the Duke of Leinster, and Thomas Emmett, were among the prime movers. Emmett was executed. Lord Edward being discovered some time afterwards was arrested, but made so determined a resistance to his arrest as to receive a shot in the shoulder from one of the officers, of the effect of which he died. General Lake, the Commander-in-Chief, defeated the main body of the insurgents at Vinegar Hill near Wexford, and enabled Lord Cornwallis, the new Viceroy, to enter upon his government. It was the policy of Pitt to emancipate the Roman Catholics of Ireland from the penal laws which obstructed the exercise of their religion. With this feeling the king had no sympathy, believing it to be contrary to his coronation oath; and finding that he could not carry this measure Pitt resigned office, and was succeeded by Henry Addington.

Russia under the Czar Paul now showed herself hostile to England. The armed neutrality of the Northern States was revived. The King of Prussia closed the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser, and the Ems, and occupied Hanover with a military force.

Charles Prince of Hesse had already seized Hamburg for the King of Denmark, and Admiral Nelson was sent to the Sound, as second in command of a fleet under Sir Hyde Parker. Nelson urged the making of the passage to Copenhagen before the ships should be intercepted by the ice. In the heat of the action, Sir Hyde Parker gave the signal to retire from the engagement. This Nelson pretended not to see, gave the order to nail his own colours to the mast, and continued in close action. It is enough to say, that after a hot engagement of some hours the Danish fleet was destroyed. After the battle Nelson had an audience with Christian VII. the King of Denmark; the result was that the Danes seceded from the league. 1801.

Russia was detached from it by an unexpected event. The Emperor Paul was assassinated, and when Nelson proceeded to Cronstadt, he found that the pacific sentiments

of the Czar Alexander left no occasion for further hostilities. A treaty of peace and commerce was soon afterwards signed at Amiens on the part of the great powers of Europe. Another success of our arms in another quarter led to the treaty of Aniens.

In 1804, Pitt again became Prime Minister. Napoleon, who had been elected First Consul in 1802, was now Emperor of the French. In the spring of 1801, an army of 15,000 English under Sir Ralph Abercrombie was sent to Egypt, where the French army numbered more than double that force. The English forces effected a landing at Aboukir, at the point of the bayonet. Ménou attempted a surprise of the English camp, but was repulsed; the loss, however, on both sides was very great; the French left 4000, the English 1500 dead on the field. Sir Ralph Abercrombie himself received a wound in this action, of which he died in a few days. The command of the army in Egypt devolved on General Hutchinson. Reinforced by the Turks he captured in succession the Egyptian towns, Rosetta, Cairo, and Alexandria. The French were allowed to evacuate Egypt. Peace was declared in 1802.

The main articles of the treaty of Amiens, were that England was to surrender all the French, Spanish, and Dutch colonies she had acquired during the war, except Trinidad and Ceylon; the Cape of Good Hope being left open for specific negotiation between the English and Dutch. Malta was to be restored to the Knights of St. John, and Egypt to the Porte. The French were to evacuate Naples and the States of the Church. The treaty was most advantageous to France, and even the ministers themselves could not speak of it as reflecting any honour upon the English name, save on the score of extreme forbearance and moderation.

But fair or unfair towards England, it soon became evident that the treaty of Amiens was not destined to continue long in force. The restless and unlimited ambition of Napoleon rendered this hopeless. The immediate occasion, though not the cause of the *rupture between the two countries was an extraordinary scene*

at the Tuilleries, in which Bonaparte expressed his indignation at a message from George III. to the Parliament, in which he expressed his wish that the militia should be called out and the naval force of England increased as a precaution against invasive measures on the part of the French Emperor. The Emperor, indignant that his pacific expressions towards England were not sufficiently credited, raised his cane in excitement during the conversation. Lord Whitworth laid his hand upon his sword, and required that the English Government should demand satisfaction for the insult. Negotiations were instituted, but to no purpose, and the English and French Plenipotentiaries retired from their respective embassies. 1803.

War had now begun in downright earnest. The friendship of Spain was suspected, but hostile intentions on the part of that kingdom seem at least to have been somewhat hastily assumed. In the port of Ferrol a large armament was fitting out, and the squadron under Commodore Moore (upon the strength of this proceeding), intercepted four Spanish frigates on their return to Cadiz from the Brazils. Three were captured and one destroyed; the prizes proved worth nearly a million sterling.

At this time Nelson had the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and was engaged in blockading the French harbour of Toulon. A cruise of Nelson to Barcelona encouraged the French, as he had anticipated, to come out of the harbour; but instead of coming to action in these waters the French men-of-war steered for the West Indies. Thither Nelson followed, but was not so fortunate as to fall in with them.

As they returned they were met by Sir Robert Calder, and an engagement ensued, in which two of the French ships were taken; but Sir Robert was summoned to a court martial, by which, however, he was honourably acquitted, for neglecting to prosecute his advantage on the following day.

The French admiral, Villeneuve, with thirty-five sail of the line, reached the harbour of Cadiz, and their arrival

was intimated to Nelson by Collingwood, who had been ordered to cruise off that port. That great admiral was at the time living in retirement in England, but at once volunteered his services to the Admiralty, and hoisting his flag on board the Victory, and sailing with the Ajax, the Thunderer, and the Euryalus, arrived at Cadiz on his birthday, September 29.

On the 19th of the following month the French fleet was compelled to leave the harbour of Cadiz by want of provisions, and three days afterwards fell in with the enemy at a distance of seven miles to the east of Cape Trafalgar. Steering to the north to cut off their van, Nelson made his last signal from the mast head, "England expects every man to do his duty."

The French and Spanish fleets combined exceeded the English both in number of ships and weight of metal. The action was begun by Collingwood in the Royal Sovereign, who was attacked at once by five of the enemy's ships. On the approach of the admiral's flag-ship, all but the Santa Anna retired. As she bore down upon the enemy the Victory was made a mark, and lost fifty officers and men before she fired a shot. She engaged first the Santissima Trinidad, a Spanish ship; secondly, the Bucentaur, a French ship; and lastly, another French ship, the Redoubtable. The tops and rigging of the Redoubtable were filled with riflemen, to whom Nelson's uniform and decorations afforded an easy mark. The action had lasted about half an hour, when the great admiral was struck by a bullet, and fell on the quarter-deck. "They have done for me, Hardy, at last," said he to his flag captain; "my backbone is shot through." On being carried down to the cockpit, it was found that the ball had passed through the left epaulette into the spine. For two hours the dying admiral endured the thunder of the guns, relieved occasionally by the cheers of the sailors, as one ship after another of the hostile fleet struck their ensigns in token of submission. He did not die till he heard from Captain Hardy that he had gained a complete and glorious victory. After this news he sank rapidly, and he expired with the exquisitely

simple and touching words, "Thank God I have done my duty." The body of the fallen admiral seemed a barrier which the French could never overstep, for from that moment which witnessed the destruction of the enemy's fleet, England was rescued from invasion. 1804.

On the 2nd of December, 1805, Napoleon crushed the power of Austria in the great battle of Austerlitz; and in October of the following year (1806) he gained an equally great victory over Prussia, at Jena. He had now prostrated the whole of Europe, except England and Russia.

In 1806 died Pitt and Fox, within a few months of each other; they were interred in close proximity within the walls of Westminster Abbey.

The French conqueror sought to fill the thrones of Europe with his own kinsmen. His brother Louis was made King of Holland. His brother-in-law Murat, King of Naples; and his brother Joseph, King of Spain.

It was from this act of usurpation that the Peninsular war sprang.

The Spaniards, resenting this aggressive occupation of the throne of their kingdom, rose in arms, and entreated the succour of Great Britain. Sir Arthur Wellesley, already distinguished by victories in India, was sent to their assistance with 10,000 men; and, landing at Mondego Bay in Portugal, defeated Marshal Junot at Vimiera. He was soon afterwards recalled to England, and his successor, Sir Hugh Dalrymple, made a treaty, commonly called the Convention of Cintra, by which the French were allowed to retire, with their arms and stores, from the territory of Portugal.

Sir Hugh paid the penalty of this impolitic indulgence by losing his command; he was superseded by Sir John Moore. The Spanish Junta promised him reinforcements, which they never supplied; and in the hope of which he had marched into the interior of the province of Leon, where, to his consternation, he heard that Madrid was in the hands of Napoleon. He was compelled to make a retreat by forced marches to Corunna, where his army arrived, exhausted, famished, and in rags. Here he had

the mortification of hearing that the transports, with provisions, had not yet arrived, and that Marshal Soult was close upon them. In spite of inferior numbers, and the harassed state of his men, he determined to face the enemy, and won a great victory. Sir John Moore was killed by a cannon-ball on the breast, and was laid in a soldier's grave, on the ramparts of Corunna.

Sir Arthur Wellesley then succeeded to the command of the army; and, entering Spain, gained a great battle at Talavera, on the banks of the Tagus. This victory gave him a peerage as Viscount Wellington of Talavera. He would have marched to Madrid, but waived his purpose on hearing that the avenues to the Spanish capital were closed by the three armies of Soult, Ney, and Mortier.

It was during these proceedings in the Peninsula that Austria made a desperate effort to retrieve the fall of Austerlitz, but Napoleon gained a second great victory at Wagram, and entered Vienna in triumph in 1809.

This was the fiftieth year of the king's reign, and was celebrated in England by a universal Jubilee.

It was to aid Austria in her struggle against Napoleon that the disastrous expedition to Walcheren was sent out from England, consisting of 100,000 men, under the Earl of Chatham, the elder brother of the late Mr. Pitt. The object of the expedition was to seize the great batteries on the Scheldt, especially those at Flushing and Antwerp. Little was effected, and the fever of that marshy district made such ravages among the troops that only a miserable remnant of the force lived to return to England.

In 1810 Portugal was the scene of the Peninsular campaign.

The object of the French was to drive the British to their ships; but, in the battle of Busaco, Wellington repulsed Massena, with a loss of 5000 French. He retreated; followed, however, by Massena; till, to his utter astonishment, the French marshal found the British army ensconced behind the lines of Torres Vedras in an impregnable position.

It was during this year that Napoleon, having divorced *Josephine Beauharnais*, married *Maria Louisa of Austria*.

In England, the growing insanity of the king led to the appointment of the Prince of Wales as Regent.

In 1811 was the fourth campaign of the Peninsular war. During this year three important victories were gained over the French—at Barossa, where Graham defeated Marshal Victor; at Fuentes d'Onoro, in which Massena was put to the rout by Wellington; and at Albuera, where Soult was repulsed by Marshal Beresford with great slaughter.

In 1812 Wellington made his third invasion into Spain; still keeping Portugal as the base of his operations, and as ground on which, if necessary, he might fall back.

He took the Forts of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz; and, having defeated Marmont at Salamanca, marched triumphantly into Madrid, amid the rejoicings of the Spaniards. Fearing the consequences of delay, on hearing that two French armies were endeavouring to form a junction at Madrid, Wellington retreated into Portugal.

It was in the session of this year that the Prime Minister, Mr. Spencer Perceval, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons, by Bellingham, a stockbroker whose business had been ruined by the war.

During this year, too, Napoleon was compelled to make his retreat from Moscow. He had penetrated into Russia with an army of nearly half a million. He had seized Moscow, when a fire broke out in the city, which deprived the army of shelter. Nothing remained for Napoleon but to retreat over the great snow plains to the south; and nothing in history has equalled the horrors of this retreat. It is computed that 400,000 men perished on the march from Moscow to the Niemen.

In the Peninsula Wellington was driving the French legions out of the country.

The battle of Vittoria, in Biscay, was the decisive event of the war. After this followed, speedily and easily, the capture of St. Sebastian and Pampeluna. Wellington determined to prosecute his successes into France itself, and in April, 1814, dispersed the remnant of Soult's army at the battle of Toulouse.

A few days before the battle of Toulouse Napoleon

had abdicated the throne of France, having been totally routed at the great battle of Leipsic.

Louis XVIII. was restored to the throne, and Napoleon retired to the island of Elba, which was given him as an independent sovereignty, with a pension of 6,000,000 francs.

A grant of 400,000*l.*, the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, and a dukedom, were the reward which England, in gratitude, bestowed on her great commander, Arthur Wellesley.

For three years, from 1812 to 1814, the English and Americans had been at war. During this war the English drove the Americans out of Canada, which they had invaded, and burnt the public buildings at Washington, but were driven out of New Orleans. The Peace of Ghent, signed in 1814, terminated the quarrel, which had arisen in a claim, on the part of the English, to recruit from the American vessels for their own navy.

To settle the affairs of Europe, after a war which had thrown everything into confusion, a Congress met at Vienna; but its proceedings were brought to an abrupt termination.

In the early spring of 1815, Napoleon suddenly left Elba, and landed on the coast of Provence. He was making the best of his way to Paris, and everywhere the French flocked by thousands to his standard. Twenty days after his landing he was in the capital, and issued from thence his dictates throughout the kingdom.

At this daring defiance of the world, and summary overthrow of all past treaties and stipulations, Europe was thrown into amazement. England, with the characteristic conviction that "nothing can be done without money," voted, through Parliament, 110,000,000*l.* for the discomfiture of Napoleon Bonaparte. The duty of expending the bulk of this sum to the best advantage devolved on his Grace the Duke of Wellington.

The duke at once took the command of the army, and the Prussians, under Marshal Blucher, undertook to co-operate with him.

Austria and Russia under these vigorous operations

were similarly prompt and unanimous, and undertook to invade France on the eastern side with the largest armaments they could muster. Under this enormous pressure Napoleon proffered negotiations, but as these were on all sides rejected, his only hope lay in vigorous preparation for war.

The plan of the duke was as follows : to effect a junction with the Prussian army in Belgium, and then to march in combined force direct for Paris.

Napoleon was not slow to discern the plan, and resolved if possible to defeat it. He accordingly took the initiative, and passed the French frontier into Belgium on the 15th of June, 1815. The duke was at Brussels with the army. The Prussians were at Ligny, some miles nearer to the French frontier.

The first news of the French advance reached the English Commander-in-Chief at the house of the Duchess of Richmond, where, in company with his principal generals, he was attending a ball. The festivities were unceremoniously broken up, and in the course of the morning the British army was on its march to Quatre Bras, about sixteen miles from Brussels.

On the following day (the 16th) they were attacked by Marshal Ney, who did his best to force the position, without success. On the same day Napoleon made an attack upon the Prussians at Ligny, and drove them out of that position. By this success he postponed for a while that which he most desired to prevent, the union of the Prussian and English armies.

Wellington, disappointed of his intention, fell back on the field of Waterloo, which he had previously surveyed, and Napoleon deemed his cause well-nigh carried, now that he had placed his army between the English and Prussians, the latter of whom were distant almost a day's march.

It was Sunday, 18th of June, when, after a night of drenching rain, through which the English had bivouacked in the open field, with the assistance of such shelter as the buildings and walls of the farms of Hougoumont and La Haye Sainte could afford, the two armies found themselves opposed,

the allied English forces numbering 67,661, the French, 68,900. Blucher had 51,944 men.

The battle began at ten o'clock in the forenoon.

Wellington occupied a position extending from a ravine near Merke Braine on the right, to the little village of Ter la Haye on the left, on which side communication was open with Blucher. In front of his centre, to the right and left respectively, were the Chateau of Hougoumont and the farm house of La Haye Sainte. In the rear of the centre was the farm house, and beyond it the village of St. Jean, by which name the French are accustomed still to designate the battle. The French troops were posted on heights about a mile in front of Wellington's position, their right resting on the farm of La Belle Alliance and the village of Planchenois.

The battle began by an attack of the French line on Hougoumont, which was occupied by a brigade of guards, who held out against them through the day.

At La Haye Sainte had been posted the German Legion. This was cut to pieces by the French.

Having made repeated charges without effect with heavy columns of infantry, Napoleon tried the strength of his cavalry, which were splendidly repulsed by the British infantry formed in squares. Against these movements of the French cavalry, the duke resolved to bring the heavy horse of his army to bear. This consisted of the Life Guards, Horse Guards, and First Dragoon Guards, under Lord Edward Somerset as brigadier. These charged the French Cuirassiers, and rode them down, taking 2000 of them prisoners.

At seven in the evening the British army had held its position, when Bulow's Prussians arrived at La Belle Alliance, and engaged the French right.

Thus was effected what the duke had all along planned, and Napoleon had failed to prevent. The French cause was growing desperate, when Napoleon, as a grand resource, ordered a charge of his Old Guard, the flower of his veterans, against the British position, which, after the destruction of the German Legion, had been established at La Haye Sainte.

Napoleon made a show of heading this charge, but soon retired, leaving it to Marshal Ney. They advanced firmly and resolutely, in spite of a galling fire from our Light Division, to the top of the ridge of intervening ground. Behind this ridge, and lying down to avoid the French artillery, were the British foot guards, who, as the French veterans approached, were ordered by the duke to rise to the attack. At the distance of about fifty yards they poured into the faces of the advancing French a terrific volley of musketry, which shook their columns in the mass.

They were then ordered to charge, and the Old Guard was hurled down the hill with the weight of the enemy upon them. It was a sight which threw the whole army of the enemy into dismay; Napoleon galloped to the centre, and ordered a general move forwards. The French forces were now in rapid retreat, and to the Prussian, as far less fatigued, was left the work of pursuit.

Sauve qui peut were the words which Napoleon uttered as his last command to the armies of France.

The loss on both sides was enormous. Nearly half the forces engaged were killed or wounded. The Duke of Brunswick at the head of his Black Hussars, had fallen at Quatre Bras.

The French commander, now in the condition of a common fugitive, surrendered himself a prisoner at Rochefort to Captain Maitland of the *Bellerophon*. Captain Maitland was ordered to proceed to Plymouth with his illustrious charge, and to hold no communication with the shore. Napoleon was transferred to the *Northumberland*, the flag ship of Admiral Sir George Cockburn, and was by him conveyed to the island of St. Helena, where, in solitude and despondency, he died, on the 5th of May, 1821.

On the 20th November, 1815, was signed the treaty of peace in definitive terms between France and the allied powers. Louis XVIII. once more returned to the throne of his ancestors.

A complete and universal peace was now established throughout Europe, but it was not a return, as might have

been hoped, in England at least, to the enjoyment of social quiet and internal prosperity. Many began to regret the termination of the war, now that the excitement of it had passed away and taxation made itself felt.

The continental nations, yet more exhausted than ourselves, had no money to bring to the English market, and in addition to these difficulties, it so occurred that bad seasons and poor harvests had raised the price of wheat as high as one hundred shillings the quarter, from half that price in the course of the year 1816; while a large number of soldiers and sailors, unfit for manual employment or unable to find it, were let loose upon the country by the termination of the war.

These circumstances gave rise to repeated outbreaks of popular violence in the interval between the close of the continental war and that of the present reign. Of these, the most serious was a disturbance at Manchester, fostered by a demagogue of the name of Hunt, who succeeded in drawing a great meeting to St. Peter's Fields, near Manchester, to consider the subject of Parliamentary Reform.

In attempting to apprehend him the mob resisted the officers, and about six persons were killed, with many wounded. By the Radicals this affair was designated as the Manchester massacre, or Peterloo, in miserable affection of Waterloo.

The same year witnessed the marriage and death in childbirth of the Princess Charlotte, the only daughter of the Regent, who had espoused Leopold, Prince of Saxe Coburg, afterwards chosen king of the Belgians.

A decisive blow was struck this year against the system of slavery by Admiral Sir Edward Pellew, afterwards Lord Exmouth. The primary object of the undertaking was to suppress piracy in the Mediterranean, of which the harbour of Algiers was the head quarters. The Dey having declined to accede to the terms required of him on this behalf, the town was bombarded and its forts carried by our sailors, though they mounted more than a thousand pieces of cannon. The Dey received pardon *on making reparation to the injured States of Europe and*

liberating the Christian slaves of his town, more than a thousand of whom were received on board the British ships.

On the 23rd of January, 1820, the Duke of Kent died at Sidmouth, leaving behind him an only daughter, the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, as presumptive heiress to the crown of Great Britain; and on the 29th of the same month died George III. at Windsor Castle, at the age of eighty-one, after a reign of more than fifty-nine years, the longest and the most memorable in the annals of England.

MAIN POINTS.

Accession and marriage of the king. Negotiation with France. Capture of Belle Isle, Dominica, and Pondicherry. The Family Compact. Pitt's resignation. Treaty of Paris. The East India Company. Clive at Calcutta, Chandernagore, and Plassey. Clive elevated to an Irish peerage, and sits in the House of Commons. Acquisition of the Carnatic. The Grenville ministry. Case of Wilkes. Stamp Act, and difficulties with the American colonists. Disruption of the American colonies. Battles of Lexington and Bunker's Hill. Progress of the war under Washington. Congress of Philadelphia. The "olive branch" rejected. Declaration of independence. Defeat of Burgoyne. Lord Chatham falls while speaking in the Lords. The Gordon riots. Naval victories. Capitulation of Lord Cornwallis. Resignation of Lord North. The younger Pitt. Recognition of American independence. Reception of Mr. Adams as Minister. Treaty of Versailles. Board of Control. Income of the Prince of Wales. Impeachment of Warren Hastings. End of Clive. Symptoms of king's insanity. Outbreak of the French Revolution. Operations of the Duke of York in France. Lord Hood at Toulon. First appearance of Napoleon Bonaparte. Immense army of the French. Defeat of the allies. French invasion of Flanders and Holland. First appearance of Sir John Moore and Lord Nelson. Lord Howe's victory. Re-prisals on the Dutch. War with Spain. Lord St. Vincent. Victory of Camperdown. Mutinies at Portsmouth and Sheerness. Napoleon in Egypt. Battle of Aboukir. Sir Sidney Smith drives Napoleon from Acre. Union of Irish Parliament. The armed neutrality. Battle of Copenhagen. Napoleon emperor. Sir Ralph Abercrombie's victory. Succeeded by Hutchinson. His successes. Treaty of Amiens. Lord Whitworth at the Tuilleries. Capture of Spanish ships. Battle of Trafalgar. Battle of Austerlitz. Deaths of Pitt and Fox. Napoleon's kingdoms. Peninsular war begins. Sir Arthur Wellesley. Napoleon's victory at Wagram. Expedition to Walcheren. Wellington and Massena. Divorce and marriage of Napoleon. Progress of Peninsular war. Soult and Castor. Further victories of Wellington. Assassination of Mr.

Perceval. Retreat from Moscow. Wellington enters France. Battle of Leipzig. Fighting in America. Wellington made a duke. Congress of Vienna. Bonaparte again abroad. Battle of Waterloo. Treaty of peace. Restoration of Louis XVIII. Popular outbreaks. Peterloo. Marriage and death of the Princess Charlotte. Bombardment of Algiers. Death of the Duke of Kent and the king.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

GEORGE IV. A.D. 1820—A.D. 1830.

GEORGE IV. was the eldest son of the late king. He was born at St. James's Palace in 1762, declared regent in 1811, crowned at Westminster, after he had held the regency nearly ten years, in the July of 1820, but crowned without his queen. Having, perhaps, a taste for coronations, even though his consort should go uncrowned, he was crowned a second time at Hanover, in September of the same year.

His accession produced no sensible change in the state of affairs; only the name of regent had been exchanged for that of king.

His first wife was Mary Anne Smythe, the widow of Colonel Fitzherbert, whom, before this time, he had discarded. The lady was a Roman Catholic and a widow for the second time when she took the prince's fancy. At the time of his private marriage with her (according to the rites of the Roman Catholic Church) he had attained the not very sedate age of twenty-two. He was naturally of good disposition, and warm-hearted, but obstinate enough to be very self-indulgent and unforgiving. His poor old father had desired for him the best of education, and his tutors were Dr. Markham, afterwards Archbishop of York, Dr. Cyril Jackson, afterwards Dean of Christ Church, and Dr. Hurd, who became Bishop of Gloucester. He was not deficient in talent, but turned it to no account. He possessed a good figure and somewhat handsome face. These he cultivated with extreme care.

In the year 1787, that is, when the prince was twenty-

five years of age, the matter of Mrs. Fitzherbert was discussed in Parliament, and Mr. Fox was authorized to deny the marriage. He spoke of it as a "monstrous calumny," but the nation was uncharitable enough to believe in it. After all it mattered little, for the marriage was null in law if not in fact.

At the age of thirty-two the debts of this royal personage amounted to 700,000*l.*, and the old king, in hope of weaning him from his licentious extravagance, persuaded him to marry, by holding out to him the prospect of his debts being paid. With this favourable augury he gave his consent to a match with his cousin, Caroline of Brunswick. The marriage was effected, and a daughter, Charlotte, was born. After which the next object, in the nature of things, was of course to effect a separation, which was accordingly accomplished. Queen Charlotte took a dislike to her daughter-in-law, who was compelled to a life of seclusion. The old king treated her kindly till the sad time came when he became virtually dead to friend and foe. She was living in Italy when her husband, the regent, came to the throne.

For some time before the termination of his regency, George had shown a strong dislike to appearing in public, and had led a life of retirement.

In 1815 came the victory of Waterloo and the national rejoicings.

In the following year came the popular reaction and aversion to the expense which had been necessitated by the continental wars. Riots broke out. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and one or two executions took place.

In 1819 the riots broke out again, and next year was the Cato-street Conspiracy. This dignified and chivalrous designation was given to it in accordance with the circumstances of its detection. Arthur Thistlewood had held a commission in the militia and in a West India regiment. He became enamoured of the principles of the French revolution, and found his way to Paris soon after the fall of Robespierre. He came back to England stuffed with political chimeras. He challenged Lord Sidmouth to *mortal combat*, and was sent to prison for a year for his

pains. He formed a project, after the fashion of Guy Fawkes, to destroy the cabinet ministers on the occasion of a political dinner at Lord Harrowby's house in Grosvenor Square. If they succeeded, the conspirators were to parade the heads of the Lords Sidmouth and Castlereagh in the streets of London, a spectacle at which it was to be reasonably presumed that the public would look on with quiet satisfaction. This dramatic preliminary having been duly enacted, the conspirators were to proceed in more business-like style. The Mansion House and Bank were to be seized and a provisional government was to be established, while, to give still further *éclat* to the business, London was to be set on fire in several places at once.

At the back of the Edgware Road was a street called Cato Street, and in that street was a hay-loft. Here the conspirators were assembled when Sir Richard Birnie entered with a staff of police, one of whom Thistlewood ran through the body. A desperate struggle ensued, and Thistlewood escaped, but was taken the next morning, together with others of the party. When the trial came on, five were executed for high treason, five transported for life, and one pardoned. So ended the miserable transaction which has passed into history under the name of the Cato-street Conspiracy.

The next national disturbance, for so it may well be called, was of a very different kind. The worthy though no doubt indiscreet and unrefined wife of George IV. thought fit on her husband's accession to the throne, to assert her rights in England. In vain the king offered her money if she would only be quiet and stay away. She was equally determined and more indignant. She landed at Dover. The people welcomed her. The king expunged her name from the liturgy. She found a home at the house of Alderman Wood in South Audley Street. Something decisive had to be done. So Lord Liverpool brought in a Bill of Pains and Penalties, which was a disguised form of bringing the queen to trial. It passed the third reading by a majority of only nine. So the ministers determined to drop the prosecution. Great were the popular rejoicings in consequence, but they soon died away.

The coronation was at hand, and the queen claimed to be crowned. This the king absolutely refused. She requested to be present. This, too, was denied her. She then intimated her intention to come to the coronation in spite of all prohibitions. It was hoped she would not make the attempt. However, she was as good as her word, and early on the coronation morning a carriage drove up to the door of the abbey of Westminster, carrying the queen, Lord and Lady Hood, and Lady Anne Hamilton. It was in vain. Nowhere could she obtain admittance. The yells of the mob found their way to the king's ears during the ceremony; but no serious outrage occurred.

The queen retired, and her death, which followed soon afterwards at Brandenburgh House, at Hammersmith, was the result of this final annoyance. She ordered that her body should be taken to Brunswick for burial, and that on her coffin the title should be inscribed, "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured Queen of England." She died in her 54th year.

The corpse was to be taken to Harwich for embarkation, and it was planned that the funeral cortège should make a circuit of London. This the populace would not allow, but compelled it by violence to take a route through the city. The mob even possessed themselves of the royal coffin, but it was given back to the authorities.

A few days before Caroline's death the king embarked for Ireland, where he spent a month amid public rejoicings. Thence he proceeded to Hanover, where he spent ten days of festivity, and enjoyed the excitement of his second coronation.

The year following he went by sea to Scotland and landed at Leith. He had engaged the affections of Irish and Hanoverians by the courtesy of his manner and the especial magic of his bow; and now in the Highland tartan he so fascinated his Scotch subjects that they seemed to fancy that the Stuarts after all ought to have been Hanoverians.

In 1827, died the Duke of York, the king's next brother. He had for many years filled the office of Com-

mander-in-Chief of the army, and was looked upon as a true soldier's friend.

Soon after the Duke of York's death, died Lord Liverpool, who since Mr. Perceval's assassination in 1812, had held the place of premier. He was succeeded by Mr. Canning, who died in 1827, and was in his turn succeeded by Lord Goderich, who again was superseded by the Duke of Wellington in 1828.

In the years before the death of the Duke of York, the attention of the people of England was drawn to the state of their old allies the Portuguese. John VI. had died, and the next heir to the crown was Don Pedro, who was Emperor of Brazil. Content with his Brazilian sceptre he abdicated the kingdom of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria, and for the sake of securing tranquillity, betrothed her to his own brother, Don Miguel: meanwhile, he had prepared a constitution for the country, which the Portuguese did not appreciate. They preferred Don Miguel and absolutism, and in this had the sanction of the Spanish Government. A force under Sir Charles Napier was sent out to the Tagus by England, of which the result was, that after a series of complications which form no part of English history, Donna Maria reached the throne.

While short-lived ministries were running their course, the problem which most interested the public was the Emancipation, as it was called, of the Roman Catholics from their political disabilities, which shut them out of many civil appointments, and especially prevented them from sitting as representatives of the people in Parliament. The most stringent laws of exclusion against them dated from the time of Elizabeth and James I. Penalties had been repealed, but disabilities remained. This was felt to be an especial grievance in Ireland, where the Roman Catholics far outnumbered their Protestant fellow-subjects. At the union of the English and Irish Parliaments, in 1800, Mr. Pitt had promised the removal of these disabilities, but George III. would not hear of it, believing it to be contrary to his coronation oath.

But the feeling in its favour had been long gaining ground. Three times, in 1821, 1824, and 1828, motions in favour of it, carried in the Commons, were thrown out by the Lords.

At last, in 1829, the Duke of Wellington's ministry made a government measure of it, and carried it by great majorities in both Houses. The bill received the royal assent the same year. So the famous Test and Corporation Acts were repealed.

The next object of national interest was the reformation of the House of Commons, and the setting upon a better footing of the Parliamentary representation. The centres of population had shifted. Old towns, once important, had now sunk into obscurity. The spread of commerce and manufacture had created populous towns which were as yet unrepresented. Bribery and heavy expenses attended the elections, and in some cases the country gentry practically returned themselves, or the members were the nominees of some influential nobleman of the neighbourhood. The question, however, was agitated, not settled in this reign.

The foreign policy of the reign was peculiarly pacific, but no little misunderstanding existed between England and "the Holy Alliance," which had been instituted in 1815. This alliance, which was composed of the Emperor of Austria, the Czar of Russia, and the King of Prussia, had professed their intention to take the precepts of Christianity as their guide in their foreign and domestic policy, whence they received the name of "the Holy Alliance;" but in spite of its name, the alliance failed to establish itself in the confidence of the English government. They did not like the tone of the manifestoes of the alliance, in which it expressed itself ready to interfere for the suppression of insubordination in European States. The English Ministry were sincerely desirous of peace, but in such matters the English Crown could not act without the consent of Parliament, and the policy of non-intervention in the affairs of foreigners had begun to strike deep root in the English mind.

► The Alliance held conferences at Troppau in 1820,

and Laybach in the following year. In that same year the Austrians put down two Italian revolutions, one at Naples, the other at Piedmont.

In 1822, a congress was held at Verona, to consider the state of Spain, which showed a very disorderly spirit; and neither talent nor tact in Ferdinand was forthcoming to appease it. The Duke of Wellington, who was sent to the Congress, remonstrated against all interference, which for a time checked the proceedings of the Congress. But in the following year a French army entered the country, and under the influence of its occupation, Ferdinand was restored to power.

A more important scene was enacted in the Levant. In 1821, a war had broken out between the Greeks and the Turks, in which the Greek cause was warmly espoused by England. In 1827, England, France, and Russia united to compel the Sultan to be content as regarded the Greeks, with nominal authority, and tribute. With this demand the Sultan refused to comply. He placed armaments along the shores of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and ordered the able Pasha of Egypt, Ibrahim Pasha, to proceed without delay to the Morea.

The Egyptian fleet arrived off Navarino, the ancient Pylus, in the month of August, 1827. It consisted of ninety-two sail, including the transports; Ibrahim commanding in person. But it was intercepted by the fleet of the allies.

The British admiral, Sir Edward Codrington, requested that the Pasha should either return at once to Egypt, or if he were admitted into the harbour of Navarino, that he should remain quiet till communication could be made with Constantinople. Ibrahim chose the latter alternative, and availed himself of his position to land and ravage the coast; the admirals of the allies remonstrated in vain. An armistice of twenty days was declared. Meanwhile the fleet of the allies drew up for close inspection of the enemy's proceedings; yet strict orders were given that not a gun was to be fired unless the Turks should begin.

But into such a mass of combustibles, it would have

been strange if some spark had not quickly fallen. It came in the shape of the following incident. An English boat had been sent by Sir Thomas Fellowes from the Dartmouth frigate to a Turkish fire-ship, to inspect and report. The Turks, believing or affecting to believe, that the movement was hostile, fired into the boat and killed the lieutenant and some of the crew. A volley of musketry followed from the Dartmouth, and the French admiral, who lay alongside; this was returned by a cannon ball at the French ship; the action rapidly became general, and in four hours the Turkish and Egyptian fleets had ceased to exist.

This event, though it met in many quarters with little approval, and was called by the Duke of Wellington "an untoward event," led in the course of time to the erection of Greece into an independent kingdom. The crown was offered to, and successively refused by, Prince John of Saxony and Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, and finally accepted by Prince Otho of Bavaria, who made Athens his seat of government.

For some years a change had been growing over the king. He loved quiet and seclusion, and seemed to have an almost nervous horror of being seen in public. He shut himself up in the Royal Lodge in Windsor Park, amused himself with driving about the park in a pony phaeton, and fishing in the Virginia Water. This feeling must have been connected with the disease—ossification of the heart—of which not long afterwards he died. When his approaching end was intimated to him, he showed the courage of his race. "God's will be done," said he, and from that moment declared that he had "done with politics." He died in his sixty-eighth year, retaining the possession of his faculties to the last.

By his untoward marriage with Caroline of Brunswick, the king had one child, the Princess Charlotte, who was born in 1796, and married, at the age of twenty, to Leopold, Prince of Saxe Coburg, who in 1831 was elected king of the Belgians. She died in child-bed, and was buried in the chapel of St. George at Windsor.

MAIN POINTS.

King's double coronation. King's first wife. His father's care for his education. Payment of his debts. Marriage to his cousin. Separation. Cato-street Conspiracy. Return to England of the queen. Lord Liverpool's Bill of Pains and Penalties. The queen repulsed from Westminster Abbey. Her end. King's visits to Ireland and Scotland. Death of the Duke of York. Arrangement with Portugal. Roman Catholic emancipation. Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts. Hints of Parliamentary Reform. Remonstrance with the Holy Alliance. Battle of Navarino. Kingdom of Greece. Declining years and death of the king. His daughter.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

WILLIAM IV. A.D. 1830—A.D. 1837.

GEORGE IV. was succeeded by his brother William Henry, who ascended the throne under the title of William IV. He had been created Duke of Clarence, and was the third son of George III. His elder brother the Duke of York died without issue, three years before the vacancy of the throne.

He was born in 1765, crowned at Westminster in 1831, and reigned seven years, from 1830 to 1837.

It will be seen therefore that he was an old man at the time of his accession, numbering nearly sixty-five years.

He had married Adelaide, daughter of the Duke of Saxe Meiningen, who was born in 1792, and died in 1849. He had by this marriage two daughters, but the first died on the day of her birth, and the second lived to be no more than four months old.

His reign, like the former, was remarkably pacific.

The character of William made him popular with the country. He had not the talent of his brother George, nor his taste, nor his love of extravagance and personal vanity. He was a plain bluff man, with the manners of a sailor of his day, and loved the profession, in which, however, he had done nothing to distinguish himself. He differed too from his brother in the affection which he

bore to his good and charitable queen, Adelaide. His reign, though a short and bloodless one, is, for the several changes which were accomplished in it, one of the most important in the history of England.

One special cause of William's popularity at the time of his accession, was a general belief that his political principles were of a more liberal cast than his predecessor's. No change, however, was made in the ministry, and for some months after the king's accession, it was thought that a coalition might be effected between the Duke of Wellington's administration and the Whigs, who now began to raise with more energy than heretofore the cry of Parliamentary Reform. But the duke, and Sir Robert Peel, who held office under him, had lost favour by the Catholic Emancipation Act. They seemed also confirmed in their intentions to yield nothing to popular clamour, by the scene lately enacted in France, where Charles X. having made an unconstitutional and unsuccessful attempt on the privileges of his Parliament and the liberty of the press, was hurled from his throne, and Louis Philippe made King of the French.

A new Parliament had been summoned at the desire of the Crown. This proved itself strongly unfavourable to the Wellington Ministry. The Duke of Wellington became more obstinate in his expressions of determination to resist Reform.

The king had been invited, with his ministers, to dine at the Mansion House on the 9th of November. Alderman Key, the Lord Mayor elect, had advised the duke to come with a strong escort. A panic seized the Londoners, and the country was believed to be on the eve of a revolution. The Funds fell three per cent., and the ministers advised the king to decline the invitation. But a debate on the Civil List, a few days afterwards, cut the knot of the difficulty. Sir H. Parnell carried a motion for a Committee of Inquiry, and the Ministry resigned the following day.

The king now sent for Earl Grey, under whom, as Premier, a new Ministry was formed, on principles of parliamentary reform. The new Whig Ministry num-

bered among its members, Lord Brougham, now raised to the peerage as Lord Chancellor; Lord Althorp, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Lansdowne, President of the Council; Mr. Lamb, afterwards Lord Melbourne, as Home Secretary; and Lord Goderich, as Secretary for the Colonies.

In the course of the following session Lord John Russell, then Paymaster of the Forces, brought in a Bill for reforming the whole system of county and borough representation; but the opposition of the Whigs was as great as any that had been offered by the Tories. The Bill was received with shouts of derision. The first reading was carried by a majority of one. Ministers therefore, not despairing, resolved on dissolving the Parliament, which had sat about three months. The new Parliament, for which the elections had been riotous beyond precedent, gave a majority of 136 in the Commons in favour of the Reform Bill when again brought in. It was violently opposed by the Tories, especially as a commercial question, for estates which commanded the return of a Member of Parliament fetched a higher price in the market. The Bill was rejected by the Lords, and the most disgraceful riots followed throughout England.

Sir Robert Peel's newly-instituted police kept the Londoners from more serious mischief than breaking windows. Among others, those of Apsley House were broken, and the Duke of Wellington had iron shutters put up, which remained until after his death, a monument of disgrace to the people. Nottingham Castle, the residence of the Duke of Newcastle, was burnt. In Bristol the principal public buildings, with the Bishop's palace, were destroyed, and 100 persons killed or wounded. Meetings were held and unions formed for the promotion of Reform throughout the kingdom. Ireland, too, was disturbed. The Catholic Emancipation had superseded O'Connell's lucrative occupation of "rent" collector, and now was the time to renew more lustily than ever the cry of "Repeal of the Union" of the English and Irish Parliaments.

Beside these troubles, England was this autumn for the first time visited by the fearful disease of cholera.

From Bengal to Astracan, Warsaw, Sunderland, Newcastle, and thence to Scotland northward, and London in the south, this king of terrors marched between the years 1823 and 1832.

In this year came another struggle for the Reform Bill. It passed the Commons, and the peers seemed somewhat more compliant; but, as it appeared likely to be extensively pruned in committee, Lord Grey proposed to the king to make a sufficient number of peers to carry it through. The king demurred, and the Ministers resigned. The Duke of Wellington and Lord Lyndhurst tried their hands at a Tory administration, but failed; so the king was compelled to yield, and recall his former Ministers. He was helped out of the dilemma of creating the new peers by the conciliatory, perhaps also the exclusive, spirit of the Lords. The Duke of Wellington and about a hundred others accommodated the Government with their absence from the House, so that the Bill passed the Peers.

The Reform Bill, as it is now familiarly called, was a measure of such vast importance as to require a specific notice of its provisions, which were as follow:—

That boroughs having a smaller population than 2000 should cease to return members, and that those having less than 4000 should cease to return more than one member. By this arrangement fifty-six boroughs were disfranchised, and thirty-one more lost one of their members. The total of the disfranchised borough members was one hundred and forty-three; their seats were transferred to the large manufacturing towns which had sprung up in the last century. About forty-five new boroughs were created, including four metropolitan boroughs—Marylebone, Finsbury, the Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, which return two members each. The larger counties were divided for the representation; and instead of fifty-two constituencies with ninety-four members, there were now eighty-two constituencies and one hundred and fifty-nine members. On the other hand, both the county and borough franchises were extended. For the counties there were to be four classes of voters:—1, the original 40s. freeholders; 2, copyholders of 10*l.* per an-

num; 3, leaseholders of 10*l.* for terms of sixty years, or 50*l.* for twenty years; and 4, yearly tenants of 50*l.* rental. In boroughs, all 10*l.* resident householders, under certain conditions, were to possess a vote.

The disturbances in Ireland had now reached a fearful height. The clergy almost starved from the impossibility of collecting tithe, and the police and peasantry were in perpetual collision. A Coercion Bill was passed, which provided for some of the grievances, and gave the vice-roy special powers over tumultuous meetings, and the right of proclaiming martial law.

The first Reformed House of Commons met in February, 1833. The Reformers had a huge majority, and fears were entertained by the elder or less adventurous lest the time-honoured institutions of the country, the Church, the aristocracy, perhaps the very monarchy itself, might be swept away. But a strong and steadfast temper existed in the country, and Sir Robert Peel, now restored to the confidence of his party, introduced the name and spirit which, in contradistinction to the old uncompromising spirit of Toryism, we call Conservative.

The two matters destined for the consideration of the first Reformed Parliament were the Negro Emancipation and the Poor Law Amendment. Insurrections of slaves in Jamaica and the Mauritius recalled to the minds of ministers the often urged arguments of Wilberforce, Buxton, and their party. The emancipation of all slaves in the British possessions was passed, and a sum of twenty millions sterling voted in compensation to the proprietors.

The Poor-law question was destined for another administration. A proposed extension of the Irish Coercion Bill had induced many of Lord Grey's ministers to resign, so that he himself felt compelled to retire.

Lord Melbourne became Premier, with Lord Althorp for Chancellor of the Exchequer, in 1834.

Under the Melbourne administration a new Poor-Law Board of Central Commissioners was appointed, and parishes, instead of maintaining each its own poor without respect to its ability of doing so, or the excessive preponderance of rich over poor, were amalgamated into unions

with district poor-houses, publicly officered and placed more immediately under the supervision and control of local boards of guardians.

And now a Conservative reaction set in. Lord Althorp had succeeded his father, Earl Spencer, and had passed into the Lords. The king availed himself of this opportunity of dismissing Lord Melbourne, and called on Sir Robert Peel to form a Conservative ministry; but they could only hold office a few months, and Lord Melbourne and his party came back again in 1835.

The new Melbourne administration leaned on the arm of O'Connell. The chief measures carried in this session were the Municipal Reform Bill, and the Dissenters' Marriage Bill. Henceforth the reign was not remarkable for important changes, except, perhaps, that in 1836 an Ecclesiastical Commission re-arranged the sees of the English Church, consolidated in one the bishoprics of Gloucester and Bristol, and created the two new dioceses of Ripon and Manchester.

In 1837 the king died of a painful disease—a consumption connected with disease of the heart. He died at Windsor peacefully, his head resting on the shoulder of good Queen Adelaide, in the seventy-third year of his age.

MAIN POINTS.

King's age. Marriage. His family. His character. Duke of Wellington's feeling against Parliamentary reform. Earl Grey's Ministry. Early fortunes of the Reform Bill. New Parliament. Reform riots. Irish disturbances. Cholera. The expedient of the Duke of Wellington for passing the Reform Bill. Its nature and provisions. Coercion Bill for Ireland. The first reformed Parliament. Questions of Poor Law Amendment, and Negro Emancipation. Other Bills. Death of the king.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

VICTORIA. A.D. 1837.

HAVING arrived at the accession of our present gracious sovereign, we may be said to have concluded the history

of the past, as it regards our own country, and to be dealing with the facts of the present day. The matters under our notice are not sufficiently removed by distance of time to be subjects of retrospective comment, and it seems better, therefore, that the remaining portion of this work should be made to consist of a simple record of the events of each year of the present reign, arranged under the successive years. As, on the one hand, we are hardly in a position to take such a general view of these more recent events as in the former part rendered it undesirable to throw the history into the form of annals, so the very fact that we are dealing with events of the present generation seems to require that this more detailed reference to dates should be employed for the concluding portion of the history.

1837.—Victoria, the only daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, succeeded her uncle, the late king, at the age of eighteen. As the Salic law excluded females from the succession to the throne of Hanover, the crown of that kingdom devolved on Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, the eldest surviving son of George III. The formal business of Parliament was brought to a close at the end of the session, and the Parliament was dissolved. The new elections proved the strength of the ministry, and no change was made in the cabinet. A Canadian rebellion occupied the early attention of the Government. It was put down without difficulty. It had its origin in Lower Canada, and was fomented by the French Canadian party, assisted by adventurers from the United States. The leaders were Papineau and Mackenzie. They were subdued by Sir Edmund Head and Sir John Colborne. Three years later an act was passed uniting Upper and Lower Canada in one province. The Earl of Durham was sent to America as plenipotentiary for this purpose.

1838.—Chartist meetings were held in various parts of England, especially at Kensal Moor, near Manchester, where 200,000 persons were computed to have met. On the 28th of June the young queen was crowned.

1839.—The Chartists renewed their gatherings, insti-

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gated partly by bad harvests in the two which had raised the price of bread, and pa-
tion of the Commons, carried by a large ma-
a Committee of Inquiry in answer to a m-
of grievance which had been presented to it

was found so heavy as to be rolled in in a tu-
The points of the Charter were six:-
1. Suffrage. 2. Vote by ballot. 3. Annual
4. Paid members. 5. Universal qualifica-
bership. 6. Electoral districts. Frost,

Williams, of whom the first had been a magis-
borough of Newport, in Monmouthshire, were
to death as ringleaders, but afterwards repre-
transported for life. Another movement, of a
more peaceful kind, was now gaining ground.
the Anti-Corn Law League, which was first fo-
1838, to procure the abolition of the high protectiv-
on home-grown grain, and throw open the corn-
to free-trade. Of this league Richard Cobden w-
leader. A new Poor-law was introduced into Ir-
The Parliamentary qualification was extended. A
for debt by mesne process was abolished; and Qua-
with others, were exonerated from the necessity of ta-
oaths in courts of justice.

1840.—On February 10, 1840, the queen was married
Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, in St. James
chapel. The Princess Royal, now Princess of Prussia
was born on November 21, in the same year. It was
decreed by Parliament, that if the queen should die
during the infancy of the Prince of Wales, who was born
on November 9, 1841, the Prince Albert should be regent.
Meanwhile he was granted an annuity of 30,000/- a year

An important expedition was fitted out this year against
China, to obtain compensation for injuries done to British
interests and subjects in connexion with the opium trade.
The emperor, alarmed at the pernicious effects of excessive
opium eating, had forbidden the importation of it. The
British merchants who made great profits by the trade, con-
tinued to smuggle it into the country. Cargoes of the drug

were seized, and the Commissioner, Captain Elliot, with others, were imprisoned. War was declared. Canton surrendered, and in the north Sir Henry Pottinger captured Amoy, and marched to the walls of Nankin. Here a treaty was concluded, in which the island of Hong Kong was ceded to Great Britain, and the city of Canton was opened to foreign trade, besides the four ports—Amoy, Foo Choo, Ning-po, and Shanghai. This was consummated in 1842. Compensation money to the extent of six millions of dollars was paid by the Chinese.

From 1839 to 1842 a terrible war was carried on in Afghanistan. The importance of Afghanistan lay in its intermediate position between our own Indian possessions and the dominions of the Shah of Persia. Persia had been always friendly with Russia, who it was suspected had designs upon our Indian Empire. Accordingly, early in 1839, a British army entered Afghanistan under Sir John Keane, and replaced Shah Shoojah on the throne, which had been usurped by Dost Mohammed. Within a few months the great cities of Candahar, Ghuznee, and Cabul were taken. But a rebellion broke out at Cabul under Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed. Sir William Macnaghten, Burnes, and other officers, being invited to a conference, were murdered. The troops determined to make the best of their way through ice and snow by mountain roads to Jelalabad, which is about ninety miles from Cabul. On the road they were plundered and fired upon by the Affghans, and only one, Dr. Brydon, escaped death. The ladies and wounded had been early in the march given up to the enemy. In the following year, Lord Ellenborough having replaced Lord Auckland as governor-general, General Pollock successfully fought his way through the Khyber Pass, and joined Generals Nott and Sir Robert Sale, of whom the former had held out in Candahar. The British generals were everywhere victorious, the captured officers and ladies were rescued, Cabul taken and again evacuated, and the army, after a ten weeks' march, arrived safely on the banks of the Sutledge, December 17, 1842. Some years afterwards, in 1855, Dost Mohammed made a friendly alliance with Great Britain.

During this period a few slight disturbances took place in England. The Corn Law question was a standing topic of agitation, and in Wales assaults were made upon the toll-bars by a party who called themselves "Rebekah's daughters." One account refers this to Gen. xxiv. 60, where Rebekah's relatives pray that her seed might possess the gate of those that hate them. Almost every turnpike gate in Wales was on this conclusive ground destroyed.

The Affghan war had only just closed when Sir Charles Napier was ordered to retaliate upon the Ameers of Scinde, for treachery towards the British troops in the late difficulties in Affghanistan, and their subsequent attempts to break off their treaty with our Indian Government. The Ameers were severely punished, and Scinde annexed to British territory. The Mahrattas, who had behaved in like manner, were chastised in the battles of Maharajpoor and Punniar, near Gwalior; with these battles Indian affairs were brought to order at the close of 1843.

1841.—In this year Sir Robert Peel became Prime Minister, and was at this time strongly opposed to the Anti-Protectionist policy of Cobden and the Manchester League. His opinions subsequently underwent alteration.

1842.—In the session of the year 1842, Sir Robert Peel introduced and carried a New Corn Law on a graduated scale, and instituted the Income Tax of 7d. in the pound on all incomes above 150*l.*

A reduction in the customs' duties also aided the progress of free trade.

The influence of O'Connell was at its height in Ireland. Meetings were held in Conciliation Hall, in Dublin, and monster meetings were held in various parts of Ireland, but in October, 1843, O'Connell was arrested for conspiracy and sedition, and condemned on those charges by the Court of Queen's Bench, at Dublin. The judgment was reversed by the House of Lords, but the influence of the great "agitator," whose darling project had been the Repeal of the Union of the Irish with the British Parliament, for which object large sums had been collected,

under the name of "Repeal Rent," was lost. He died in 1847 at Genoa, on his way to Rome.

The Anti-Corn Law party redoubled its exertions in 1845, instigated by a potato famine in Ireland, for the relief of which large subscriptions were raised in England. Sir Robert Peel had now come over to free-trade principles, but feeling that he could only in a private capacity support that policy, he resigned, and Lord John Russell, who had avowed free-trade opinions, was sent for by the queen; but failing to form a ministry, Sir Robert Peel returned to office, and in the January of 1846 brought in a bill for the abolition of the duty on wheat at the end of three years. In the interval the duty was reduced from 16s. to 4s. a quarter, and buckwheat and India wheat were at once admitted duty free.

Within the period of ten years from 1839-1849, was comprised the Sikh war in India. The Sikhs inhabited the territory of the Punjab, or five rivers, north-east of Scinde, and higher up the Indus. Their prince, Runjeet Sing, had been a firm ally of the English, but his death, in 1839, caused a bloody contest for the kingdom, during which the Sikhs attacked the British force at Moodkee. Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge attacked the Sikh camp at Ferozeshah, and drove the enemy across the Sutledge. The battle lasted two days, for the Sikhs were brave, their cavalry excellent, and their officers in many instances European. Sir Harry Smith's victories of Aliwal and Sobraon opened the country to Lahore, the capital of the Punjab. In 1849 the war broke out afresh, and the stronghold of the Sikhs at Chilianwalla was attacked by Lord Gough with considerable loss. At Guzerat, a few weeks afterwards, Lord Gough retrieved his fame by routing an immense force of Sikhs. Henceforth the Punjab was annexed to our Indian empire.

1848.—In the February of this year, Louis Philippe was driven from the French throne, and a republic established by the third French revolution. The ex-King of the French took refuge in England, and died at Claremont in 1850. At the close of the year, Louis Napoleon, son of

the ex-King of Holland and nephew of the great emperor, became President of the French Republic, and after the expiration of four years, Emperor of the French, with the title of Napoleon III.

Chartist meetings were still in vogue, and on Kennington Common 20,000 met to escort Feargus O'Connor to the Parliament, with a petition on behalf of the Charter; but 150,000 citizens had been sworn as special constables, and strong military preparations had been made by the Duke of Wellington. So that no outbreak could take place.

The Repeal agitation had not died away in Ireland. William Smith O'Brien showed himself anxious to be regarded as O'Connell's successor and representative. The newspapers wrote up Repeal, the cleverest being the "United Irishman," of which John Mitchell was the editor. In Tipperary an insignificant insurrection took place under Smith O'Brien. Four of the leaders were taken and condemned to death, but their sentence was commuted for banishment.

1849 was not an eventful year. It was marked, however, by a well-timed visit of the queen to Ireland, where she was loyally welcomed, and also by the death of the amiable and excellent Queen Dowager Adelaide.

The year 1850 was marked by the death of Sir Robert Peel, who fell from his horse in St. James's Park, and died four days afterwards, in his 63rd year. A movement was made by the court of Rome to re-establish the Roman Catholic hierarchy in England, by parcelling the country into sees, the whole being placed under the jurisdiction of Cardinal Wiseman, who was made Archbishop of Westminster. The proceeding excited at the time great indignation, being stigmatized as the papal aggression. An Ecclesiastical Titles Bill passed the Parliament, prohibiting the assumption by any Roman Catholic bishop of the titles of existing Protestant sees.

In 1851 was opened the Great Exhibition of the industrial works and productions of all nations, in Hyde Park. It had been originated by the Prince Consort, and the

last days of Sir Robert Peel, who died before its completion, were given to designing it.

Next year, 1852, Lord John Russell, defeated on the Militia Bill, resigned, and was succeeded by the Earl of Derby, formerly Lord Stanley. In September the great Duke of Wellington died at Walmer Castle, and in the month of November a magnificent funeral was celebrated at the public expense. His remains were conducted through myriads of spectators to their resting-place, close to those of the illustrious Nelson, beneath the dome of St. Paul's cathedral.

Before the end of the year Lord Derby was left in a minority and compelled to resign. A coalition ministry succeeded under Lord Aberdeen, which is chiefly remarkable for the circumstance that under this Government took place the memorable war of the Crimea, which we must now proceed to notice at length.

1853.—It cannot be doubted that the Russian policy sets a high value on Constantinople. That magnificent city, with the European section of the Ottoman dominions, would not only in itself be a superb acquisition, adding a splendid southern capital to the cold cities of the north of Russia, but it would materially aid the retention and enlargement of the Czar's possessions in Asia, from which it is separated only by a narrow strait. The memory of the past would enhance the interests of the present. The Czar or Cæsar of Russia assumes to be the representative of the ancient Roman Cæsars, who, toward the decline of the empire, had fixed their thrones at Byzantium, the modern Constantinople, the ancient Rome of the East. To these inducements of policy and prestige would be added that of religion, for the Czar is the head of the Oriental or Greek Church, and deems himself protector of those Christians, who still style themselves Catholic and Orthodox, although, like the Church of England, they are not in matters of jurisdiction and worship in communion with the see of Rome. The ostensible pretext of the war was connected with religion. A quarrel had arisen between the Greek and Latin monks about the holy places

at Jerusalem, especially the guardianship of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, which claims by tradition to be built over the spot of our Lord's burial. The Emperor Nicholas claimed the protection or control over all members of the Greek Church resident in the Turkish dominions, a claim which the Sultan would not concede.

The first movement of the war was the occupation by the Russian troops of the Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. A battle was fought with the Turks, under Omar Pasha, at Oltenitza, in which the Russians were signally defeated. The condition of European affairs seemed favourable to the project of the Czar—namely, the annexation of European Turkey to Russia. France was internally unquiet; Germany he believed to be, if not friendly, at least unwilling to go to war; while he hoped to gain the assistance, or at least the neutrality of England, by holding out the possession of Egypt, the best administered portion of the Turkish dominions, and especially valuable to us as lying on the route to India. The Czar held the Ottoman power in profound contempt, "The sick man is dying" was the phrase he employed to express the decadence of the Turkish strength. But the Turks were strong, if not in themselves, in the determination of the great powers of Europe to uphold the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, rather than allow the balance of European power to be disturbed by the annexation of Constantinople to Russia. The Sultan appealed to England and France, who sent an allied fleet into the Black Sea. The Russian ambassador left London, and war was formally declared in the month of March, 1854.

An English army under Lord Raglan, and a French army under Marshal St. Arnaud, met at Varna, in the spring of this year. Sir Charles Napier was despatched with the command of an English fleet to the Baltic. The gallant stand which the Turks had made in the Principalities induced the allied powers to concentrate their efforts upon the southern peninsula of the Crimea. The allied army landed without opposition at Eupatoria, on the west coast, in the month of September. Prince Menschikoff, the Russian commander-in-chief, had posted

an army of 60,000 men on the heights which overlook the left bank of the little river Alma. This position was stormed, and carried in a few hours. Notwithstanding the strength of their position, the Russians readily took alarm. They fled in all directions; and, though the allies suffered severe loss, the victory was complete. Menschikoff's carriage and despatches were seized, but the want of cavalry prevented the allies from following up their victory. From the banks of the Alma the allied army marched to Balaklava, which, being a tolerably commodious harbour, though its exposure caused much damage and loss to the shipping, enabled the invading forces to draw constant supplies from the sea. The southern heights of Sebastopol were next occupied, as being the stronghold of the Crimea, and preparations were made for a siege; but, owing to the rocky nature of the ground, earthworks and trenches were with great difficulty completed sufficiently to enable the allies to open fire upon the place, which the Russians used all their time and skill in fortifying to the utmost. They were also assisted in their means of defence by their fleet, which was shut up in the harbour.

The siege of Sebastopol lasted nearly a year. During the course of it a Russian army under Liprandi endeavoured to raise it by an attack upon the British position at Balaklava, which, after hard fighting, was defeated. The battle was memorable for the famous charge of light cavalry under the Earl of Cardigan. Six hundred of this light horse, by a blunder in the words of command, charged the body of the Russian army, kept possession for a little while of their artillery, and then cut their way back through a body of 5000 horse of the enemy, leaving more than two-thirds of their number dead upon the field.

On the morning of the 5th of November the Russians made another attempt upon the British position at Inkermann. The Russian attack was made early in the morning, under cover of a thick fog. The English held their ground till a division arrived to their assistance from the French general, Canrobert, who had succeeded Marshal St. Arnaud, who died of disease. The Russians were

hurled backwards down the steeps, while the artillery played with terrible effect upon their ranks. The Duke of Cambridge, with a brigade of Guards, fought on this occasion. Winter set in, and there seemed no hope of carrying the siege. Fatigue and exposure thinned the ranks of the allies. The commissariat was ill-organized, the hospitals were insufficient. Relief was brought in the latter respect by Florence Nightingale, who with a staff of volunteer nurses, set herself to work to tend the sick and wounded at Scutari, one of the suburbs of Constantinople. The ministry became unpopular. Lord Aberdeen resigned, and was succeeded by Lord Palmerston.

This took place in the early part of 1855. It was now that the Czar Nicholas died, but this event had no effect in bringing the war to a close. Alexander succeeded to his father's throne. The Baltic fleet under Napier, did nothing but bombard Bomarsund, a fortress on the Aland Islands. He was superseded by Admiral Dundas, who was not more successful. From the Black Sea Sir Edmund Lyons sailing into the sea of Azoff took Kertch, Yenikale, and other towns, and so succeeded in cutting off the supplies of the Russians, and indirectly weakening the force of the enemy at Sebastopol. Neither Prussia nor Austria, though as much interested as any other European powers in checking Russian aggression, joined in the war. The Sardinians, however, sent a well-equipped force under General della Marmora. In June Lord Raglan died of cholera, and was succeeded in the chief command by General Simpson. About the same time the French general, Canrobert, was superseded by Pelissier. Under the latter the French took the fortification called the Mamelon, and afterwards effected a lodgment in the Malakoff. The English stormed the Redan, but were compelled to retire. The Malakoff gave the French the command of the whole town, and in the course of the night the Russians evacuated Sebastopol. The Turkish garrison at Kars, in Asiatic Turkey, was nobly held by General Williams till he was compelled to surrender on honourable terms to the Russian general, Mouravieff.

In January 1856, negotiations for peace were concluded. The Danubian Principalities were to be independent of Russia, the mouths of the Danube were to be thrown open, and Sebastopol was to be dismantled. The treaty was signed at Paris, March 30, 1856.

1857.—The following year witnessed the outbreak of the Indian mutiny. For many years the East India Company had maintained a large force of native Indian troops, who were armed and disciplined after the European manner. Much confidence was felt in these men till the fearful outbreak took place this year, the cause of which is still enveloped in mystery, a matter hardly to be wondered at when we consider how difficult a problem it is to enter into the inner mind, feelings, and disposition of a foreign people, and how the difficulty must be enhanced when these foreigners are Orientals and heathens. Whatever may have been the cause, or the complication of causes, which led to the terrible result, the pretext alleged was a pious horror on the part both of Mahomedans and Brahmins lest the English should subvert their religion. The introduction of the Enfield rifle necessitated the use of greased cartridges, the grease being supposed to be either that of the cow or the swine, or both, of which the former is held sacred by the Brahmins, and the latter is an abomination to the Mahomedans.

The first serious outbreak of this mutiny took place early in May at Meerut, a military station about thirty miles from Delhi. The mutineers murdered their officers and their families, and then proceeded to Delhi, where they were joined by the garrison, and repeated the atrocities they had committed at Meerut. They took the King of Delhi, an old man who was living as a pensioner of the East India Company, and proclaimed him Emperor of India.

The whole Presidency of Bengal was rapidly in a state of insurrection. Everywhere the British officers with their wives and children were murdered by the servants of their household or the troops they had commanded. A force held out near Delhi, and though it consisted of

but a handful of men, it assumed the attitude of a besieging force against that great capital. The activity of Sir John Lawrence, at this time Governor of the Punjab, furnished them with reinforcements of British troops and Sikh auxiliaries, and this comparatively insignificant little army captured the king and city of Delhi.

Meanwhile fearful tragedies were enacted at Cawnpore on the Ganges, and at Lucknow, the capital of the kingdom of Oude. At Cawnpore the English force, under General Wheeler, capitulated to the native chief, Nana Sahib, who had been on hospitable and friendly terms with them. The Nana had promised them a safe conduct to Allahabad. They embarked, and were hardly afloat when they were fired on and massacred. About 150 women and children were then taken back to Cawnpore, where they were put to death and their remains thrown into a pit, over which, in sad remembrance of the dreadful deed, now stands a Christian church. The tragedy of Cawnpore roused the chivalry of Sir Henry Havelock. With a force of only 2000 he attacked the city of Cawnpore, drove the rebels before him, and set out to the desperate task of relieving those who were besieged at Lucknow. Half way between Cawnpore and Lucknow for the ninth time Havelock's little army defeated the insurgents who opposed him; but wholly exhausted, they were compelled to return to Cawnpore. Here they were joined by Sir James Outram with fresh troops, and marched once more for Lucknow. In the house of the Residency they found a little garrison reduced to the last extremity, and numbering so many sick, wounded, women, and children, that they could not venture in the face of the overpowering numbers of the enemy to leave Lucknow. They were compelled to act on the defensive till the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell, who relieved the Residency after a siege of five months. Havelock soon after died, but Campbell followed up his success, till from town to town and fort to fort the most terrible revolt of our history was put down, and the Presidency of Bengal returned to its former allegiance.

The immediate result of the Indian disaster was that the management of the affairs of India became a topic of universal discussion throughout England. A Bill was brought into Parliament which, after full discussion, became law, exonerating the East India Company from all responsibility of administering the government of India, and appointing an Indian Council with a Secretary of State at their head. For all such purposes, therefore, the East India Company has ceased to exist.

The Chinese had massacred many Europeans in their waters, and the French sent out a force to co-operate with our own in enforcing respect to the merchants of the allies. Lord Elgin was despatched to China as Plenipotentiary Ambassador, while Baron Gros represented the Emperor of the French. All demands were at first refused by the Chinese.

Accordingly Canton was captured, and the Imperial Commissioner Yeh having been taken prisoner, was sent to Calcutta. The allied squadron entered the Peiho river, and reached the great city of Tien-sin, when the Celestial Government offered to treat for peace.

Lord Elgin availed himself of this opportunity to proceed to Japan, and concluded a treaty of commerce at the capital, Jeddo.

On the 25th of January, 1858, the Princess Royal of England was married at St. James's Palace, to Prince Frederick William, the present Crown Prince of Prussia.

Early in this year an attempt was made upon the life of the Emperor Napoleon, by throwing a case of explosive materials before the Imperial carriage on its way to the opera. The attempt was unsuccessful. The conspirators were tried and executed.

The matter so far affected this country, that the crime was believed to have been planned by French refugees in England, and a Bill was introduced by Lord Palmerston to amend the law of conspiracy. The Parliament appears to have been jealous at the supposed influence of the French Emperor in the case, and the Ministry were defeated on the measure. They resigned, and the Earl

of Derby received her Majesty's command to form a new Ministry.

The more important acts of this Session were the practical removal of the Jewish Disabilities, the Repeal of the existing Property Qualification for Members of Parliament, and the establishment of the Metropolitan Board of Works for the improvement of the drainage of London, especially the purification of the River Thames.

The Leviathan, or Great Eastern, was this year launched from the yard of Mr. Scott Russell, on the Thames.

At the opening of the Session of 1859, Mr. Disraeli introduced a Bill for reforming the Representation of the People, which was an advance on the measure of 1852.

An amendment was carried against Ministers by a majority of 39, which led to a dissolution of Parliament. At the ensuing election the result was so decidedly unfavourable to the Conservatives, that Lord Derby and his colleagues resigned their offices.

A new administration was formed under Lord Palmerston, which, as it remained in power for a considerable term of years, merits specific enumeration.

The first Lord of the Treasury was Lord Palmerston; the Lord Chancellor, Lord Campbell; who dying, was succeeded by Sir Richard Bethell, as Lord Westbury; the President of the Council, Lord Granville; Privy Seal, Duke of Argyll; the Home Secretary, Sir George Lewis, and afterwards Sir George Grey; the Foreign Secretary, Earl Russell; the Colonial Secretary, the Duke of Newcastle; the Secretary at War, Lord Herbert; who dying, was succeeded by Sir George Lewis, at whose death Lord de Grey and Ripon succeeded; the Secretary of State for India, Sir Charles Wood; the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Gladstone; the First Lord of the Admiralty, Duke of Somerset; the President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Villiers; and the Commander-in-Chief of the Army, the Duke of Cambridge.

The late attempt against the life of the Emperor Napoleon by Orsini and his accomplices, and the defeat of Lord Palmerston's Bill for amending the law of conspiracy, in reference especially to foreign refugees in England, led to

the excitement of much ill-feeling in France against this country. The French press even spoke of invasion, and the defenceless state of our own shores was matter of frequent observation in Parliament, and on the part of eminent members of the military and naval professions.

In this state of the public mind a measure was concerted of which the lapse of time has amply shown the wisdom and expediency.

In the spring of the year 1859, a circular letter of Her Majesty was issued sanctioning the organization of a Volunteer Corps as an especial reserve against foreign invasion. The plan was enthusiastically promoted throughout the country, and by the end of the summer, the muster rolls of the Volunteers numbered 180,000 men, whose characteristic weapon of war is the rifle. The improvement of the defensive works at Portsmouth was another result of the national feeling.

But in whatever degree the French people may have contemplated any such visit to our shores, their attention was now wholly absorbed in another quarter.

At the reception of the Foreign ambassadors, on New Year's day, 1859, at the Palace of the Tuileries, the Emperor of the French expressed himself to the Austrian ambassador as dissatisfied with the conduct of the Emperor Francis, in regard to Italy, in such a way as was felt to portend warlike measures on behalf of France against the Austrians, and in favour of a new form of Italian nationality of which Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, was to be the exponent and head. The Austrian army, in consequence of the large military preparations of Victor Emmanuel, crossed the Ticino, and the French entered Piedmont. War began at once, in which the Austrians were signally unsuccessful from the first. Defeated at Montebello, they were compelled to retire across the Ticino. Another victory of the allies followed at Magenta, and another at Solferino, which determined the issue of the campaign, and compelled the Austrians to sue for peace. The French and Austrian Emperors met at Villafranca, where an armistice was agreed upon, which led to the treaty of Zurich. The terms of this treaty were in some respects

curious enough. That Lombardy should be ceded to the French Emperor, and by him transferred to Victor Emmanuel, is what all might have expected; but it seemed a singular provision that Venetia should be left under Austrian rule, with no further consolation than the privilege of becoming, if the Venetians so desired, a member of a confederation of Italian States, of which the Pope was to be the president. The subjects of the Grand Dukes of Tuscany and Modena, who had driven these petty sovereigns from their capitals, refused to return to their former allegiance at the dictate of Napoleon, and tendered themselves to Piedmont.

Meanwhile the Chinese treaty of Tien-sin remained unratified, and it seemed as if the Celestial government were determined upon nothing except its indefinite postponement by shifts and evasions. It was determined to compel the Chinese by force to carry out their engagements. The first steps taken in this direction were disastrous. An attack on the forts of the Peiho river, precipitated by the treachery of the Chinese, was defeated. Two vessels of war ran aground in the river, and fell into the enemy's hands; two more were sunk, 64 men were killed, and 252 wounded. It was time for larger measures, in which the French were ready to co-operate. An army was sent out which stormed the forts of the Peiho, possessed itself of Tien-sin, and advanced to Pekin itself.

The army of the Chinese, under San-ko-Lin-Sin was defeated. The magnificent Summer Palace of the Emperor was stormed and given up to plunder, and when the Generals of the allies reached the mysterious capital of China, they found the authorities of the Celestial Empire ready and willing to receive the plenipotentiaries. Under Lord Elgin and the French Baron Gros matters were adjusted, and the treaty of peace and commerce signed. Ratifications of the articles of Tien-sin being exchanged with Prince Kung, brother of the Emperor, 1860.

In the Session of 1861 an Act was passed for the amendment of the Law of Bankruptcy; and Imprisonment for Debt was abolished except in cases of fraud. The

paper duty was repealed, and a loan of five millions advanced for the promotion of railways in India.

The interests of British commerce and manufactures suffered severely at this period by the Civil War which had broken out between the Northern and Southern States of America, and an untoward circumstance occurred, which well-nigh involved England in an American war. Commodore Wilkes, of the United States navy stopped and boarded the British mail steamer Trent, on her way to the West Indies, arresting certain passengers supposed to be accredited agents of the Confederate or Southern States. The danger was averted by the surrender to England of Messrs. Mason and Slidell, and an apology for the procedure of Wilkes.

A famine raging in the North-western provinces of India, a subscription was this year raised for the relief of the starving natives, which amounted to more than £100,000.

The present year being that of the decennial census, the population of Great Britain and Ireland was found to amount to 29,334,788.

This year witnessed the death of two illustrious personages, the mother and the husband of the Sovereign. On the 16th of March the Duchess of Kent died. Addresses of condolence were presented to her Majesty on the occasion of this her first domestic sorrow from both Houses of Parliament and the corporate and municipal bodies of England; but while the Queen's grief was still fresh came the second affliction, yet harder to bear, the loss of the Consort who had been not only the object of her unswerving affection but the guide and counsellor of her life. It was early on the morning of Sunday the 14th of December, that the great bell of St. Paul's tolled for the departure a few hours before of the Royal Consort.

On the 1st of July, 1862, was celebrated at Osborne by the Archbishop of York, the marriage of Her Royal Highness the Princess Alice, with Prince Louis of Hesse, in the presence of the Queen, the Royal family, and a few invited guests; and in November, her Majesty in

Council declared her consent to a matrimonial contract between His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and Her Royal Highness the Princess Alexandra, daughter of Prince Christian of Denmark, who afterwards became King Christian IX. On the 9th of this month the Prince of Wales attained his majority.

On the 6th of March, 1863, the Princess Alexandra of Denmark arrived at the Nore, and on the following day landed at Gravesend, where she was received with every demonstration of welcome and rejoicing, which attended her as she made her progress through the City of London amidst dense masses of spectators to the Great-Western station ; whence the party proceeded by rail to Windsor, and on the 10th the marriage was celebrated in St. George's Chapel.

In the month of July a formidable outbreak of natives took place in New Zealand. The tribe of the Waikatoes, dwelling near Auckland, murdered two of the settlers. An action took place under General Cameron with 500 troops against a large body of natives, who fought desperately, but were defeated with great loss. The Maoris continued to ravage the province, which led to the formation of a body of Colonial Volunteers and Militia, amounting in a few weeks to 4000 men.

In August a British squadron under Admiral Kuper bombarded, and after a brisk action destroyed the fortified town of Kagosima in Japan. The loss of the British force consisted of two captains, eleven seamen, besides thirty-nine wounded. This proceeding was consequent upon the murder of Mr. Richardson in September, 1862, for which no satisfaction had been obtained.

On the 8th of January, 1864, the Princess of Wales gave birth to a son, who was baptized on the 10th of March as Albert Victor Christian Edward. In the summer of this year the Ionian Islands, which heretofore had been under British protection, were finally assigned to Greece. The American Civil War, of which the details hardly form any portion of English history, still continued. The Confederate steamer Alabama, after inflicting heavy loss on the Federal commerce, was sunk after

an action of an hour by the turret frigate Kearsage. A portion of the crew with Captain Semmes were picked up by the English steam-yacht Deerhound, and brought to Southampton. A terrible explosion of two powder magazines in the Erith marshes, (calculated to have contained 140,000 pounds of gunpowder,) at seven o'clock on the morning of the 1st of October, caused the death of ten persons, with injuries to as many more. A breach of more than 100 yards was made in the river embankment. The neighbouring country for many square miles must have been inundated at the rising of the next tide, but for the strenuous efforts of the labourers of the district, and the prompt and efficient aid of Engineers, Sappers, and Miners, from the neighbouring garrison at Woolwich.

The 14th of April was marked by the assassination of the President of the United States, Abraham Lincoln, the news of which excited consternation and sympathy throughout England. He was shot through the head, while sitting in his private box at a theatre by an assassin, who then leapt upon the stage with the cry, "Sic semper tyrannis!" The President died on the following morning. In the same evening an attempt was made to murder Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, who, though stabbed in several places, ultimately recovered; one of his servants being killed, and his son also losing his life in defending his father. Wilkes Booth, the asserted assassin, was traced to a barn near Port Royal in Maryland, and refusing to surrender was shot through the head by the sergeant of the troops sent to seize him. Addresses of condolence were voted by the Houses of Lords and Commons, and similar addresses were forwarded to America from all the most important towns of the kingdom. The President was succeeded in his office by the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson; and soon afterwards the President of the Southern Confederacy, Jefferson Davis, with his family and staff, were captured at Irwinstown, in Georgia. He was released on bail in 1867.

The great event of 1866 was the successful laying of the Electric Telegraph Cable from the shores of *Valentia*

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

in Ireland to the coast of Newfoundland. I commencement of the enterprise from the 1 to form a Company in 1851, we shall calc fifteen years as the time occupied before the f communication with her Canadian colonies an continent of America; and in the mind of every p ist seems a happy omen of peace, by uniting m than ever the interests of the old and new world

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